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Childhood Education

**This We Know
About Children**

October 1952

JOURNAL OF
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To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than
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1952-53: The Challenge
of Today's Children

Next Month—

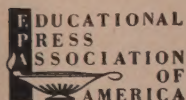
When you have read this October issue on "This We Know About Children," you will be well prepared to proceed to the November issue on "The Challenge of Uncertainty."

The editorial and five excellent articles discuss what we can do about uncertainty in our own lives, how we can help children develop resiliency and power in new situations, and give encouraging accounts of what has been done with children — in normal situations and in quandaries.

Authors include Paul Misner, Bernice Baxter, Sybil Richardson, Helene Pelzel, and Maud Ellsworth.

Watch for "Space for the Spirit"! It is an article everyone will be talking about and recommending to others.

The second section is on reading. An excellent report on what research has been done in the areas of great concern to many such as grouping, reading readiness, and basal textbooks.



REPRINTS — Orders for reprints (no less than 50) from this issue must be received by the Graphic Arts Press, 914 20th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., by the fifteenth of the month.

Childhood Education

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"Security comes mostly from knowing the important questions, learning where some of the answers can be found, and from adhering to a few principles of child growth and development."

Photo by Eva Luoma

Organizing Our Ignorance

COLLEGE PROFESSORS, THEY SAY, ARE NOT SO MUCH SMARTER THAN other people—they merely have their ignorance better organized. Their security comes from knowing for sure what they know and don't know. This issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION is devoted to a discovery of what we know and don't know about child development. Certainly, too, it should be helpful in increasing knowledge about children and young people.

Increasing your knowledge is like bringing a light into the darkness, the brighter the light, the greater the circumference of the circle of darkness. You realize more and more what you don't know.

So our job becomes that of getting our ignorance better organized. Certainly we don't need to be anxious or worried because we don't know all the answers. Security can never come that way. Security comes mostly from knowing the important questions, learning where some of the answers can be found, and from adhering to a few principles of child growth and development.

One way to anchor ourselves to something secure is to commit ourselves to the idea of the worth and dignity of all people, big and little, anywhere and everywhere in the world. We can commit ourselves to the idea that every member of the human family should have a place where he can grow up to be a whole man and not a fraction of a man.

This requires faith in the possibilities of all children. A Pittsburgh teacher was having her children tell what they planned to do when they grew up. There were going to be doctors, lawyers, farmers, firemen, nurses, and clerks. Then the superintendent of schools came in, and the teacher wondered what poor Jimmy who sat in the last seat in the last row would say. Something silly or unsuitable perhaps. What in the world could Jimmy do, anyway? When it came to his turn he said, "When I grow up I will lead a blind man." It was the only response that concerned itself with other people.

Teachers can learn the important questions, and they can learn to find some of the answers in yearbooks, articles, reference books. They can learn some of the answers from children and from their colleagues. They can, in short, be professional people and get their basic security from being students of the educative process.

WHEN WILLIAM JAMES, THE PSYCHOLOGIST, AND HENRY JAMES, THE novelist, asked their father what they should tell people who asked what he did, he replied: "Say I'm a philosopher, say I'm a seeker for truth, say I'm a lover of my kind, say I'm an author of books if you like; or best of all, just say I'm a student."—EDGAR DALE, *professor of education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.*

This We Know About Children

Because

We can learn from children themselves is the consensus of three people with different relationships to the public schools in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Mrs. Marian Longstaff, a parent; Barbara Rogers, a kindergarten teacher; and Mrs. Virginia Hathaway, chief psychologist.

. . . I See Them At Home

By MARIAN LONGSTAFF

PARENTS BRING VARIED TALENTS TO THE vocation of rearing children. Some bring specialized training, some bring a natural aptitude, others bring apprehension and worry. Many bring a love that paves the way for understanding. All parents can bring a day-by-day observation which can help them become better parents.

Within the walls that enclose any family is played a highly significant drama from which each parent can learn and can profit. We can draw general conclusions from what we see in our own and neighboring households and these we can and should share with classroom teachers.

A significant lesson to me came from a neighboring family. Bill, the second son, spent weeks of agony, suffered bruises, scratches, and cuts, trying to master bicycle riding. When Tom, his older brother, was Bill's age, he was a skillful and sure rider after 48 hours of practice. In the end Bill became just as competent a bicycle rider as Tom. Here was a learning experience for parents, a demonstration of two truths: that children learn at different rates of speed, and that no amount of coaching will hasten the process significantly.

Another lesson for all of us from this kind of experience is that when a child has developed the ability to perform a new task, then he will do it and not before. Ann, the sister of Tom and Bill, learned at the age of six to ride a bicycle. Her brothers showed little interest in learning until they were seven. Ann had roller skated when she was four; Tom not until he had passed five. Bill, who was urged to skate when he was four, fell so many times that he gave up in discouragement. He never did learn. And so our children act out the laws of learning, both at home and in the classroom.

Clues to Behavior

It seems to me that the trend to bring the school and the home closer is of greatest importance and need. Frequently teachers are left to ferret out reasons for a child's behavior that might be obvious if there were a closer relationship between the parents and the teacher. Time consuming though it may be for the busy teacher and parent, teacher-parent conferences are a step forward.

In a face-to-face meeting the parent may reveal to the teacher some facts about the child's home that furnish clues

to that child's classroom behavior. Many times the parent could, by clarifying parts of the family situation, help the teacher to understand better the child's personality. Perhaps we, as parents, stand too much in awe of the teacher's education. Because she is trained to deal with children we expect her to understand our children with no more information to go on than that which she can observe.

Would it not help her to know that Bobby's grandfather has recently joined the family circle and every member of the family, including Bobby, is having to make adjustments, some of them with tensions? Bobby may be making his adjustment in the classroom, but the teacher may have difficulty recognizing his modified behavior as such. Judy's father may have been at war during her very young years. Judy's parents may recognize that present insecurity stems from that period and could help the teacher handle Judy better. There are many things of this sort that parents know about their children which might help a teacher to do her work more easily.

Teachers know a great deal about our children which would help us, too. Above

all, teachers know what normal behavior is. Parents, having but a limited number of subjects to observe, may fret and worry over something that a teacher recognizes to be completely normal behavior. Conversely, parents may complacently overlook something that a teacher perceives as a real danger signal.

All one winter our daughter walked barefooted whenever in the house. We did not focus too much attention on the matter even though we were all aghast. Several months later we read in a book of child psychology that often children of our daughter's age remove their shoes when coming indoors.

How relieved we were that we had not allowed this behavior to become a matter of argument.

A teacher meeting a parent in friendly conference may often reduce the latter's worry by sketching what to expect from the normal child of the age level she teaches. Teachers and parents have so much to give each other, so much to share. The burdens of each are considerably lightened as this sharing is increased, and the contributions to the child, from both home and classroom, are immeasurably enriched.

. . . I See Them in the Classroom

By BARBARA ROGERS

WHEN I WAS LEARNING TO BECOME A kindergarten-primary teacher, I learned the divisions of child growth—physical, mental, social, emotional. These had little more than academic meaning to me even during the practice teaching period. Then as I stood before my first group of thirty-eight boys and girls all that I had learned suddenly came alive.

As these expectant, eager, small boys and girls wiggled in the wooden classroom chairs, I recalled from the textbook page: "The kindergarten child needs activity." As they drooped or showed restlessness in mid-morning, the sentence came back: "The kindergarten child needs rest." That first week as five-year-old Julie wept and clung to her mother when the latter tried to leave her

behind with me, I remembered: "The kindergarten child is sometimes fearful and insecure in leaving his mother the first week. He may be timid in the face of new situations, of large groups."

When Tommy and Nancy both rejected group activities, the statement came back: "The kindergarten child sometimes does not want to enter into kindergarten activities at first."

What do we teachers do in the classrooms of today to meet such needs of children? I can describe the kindergarten and the first and second grade classroom experiences firsthand because there is where I have spent my last eleven years from early September to mid-June.

This We Do

Yes, the child does need physical activity. He must have it. Through activity he does much of his learning. Therefore, we plan games, we teach songs, we play. Play, nowadays, is adapted not only to the child's interests, but to his physical structure and energy output. His large muscles need developing, so we leave the tiny blocks until later and furnish him with generous sized blocks to handle. If we have a well-stocked kindergarten, there is a big wooden jungle for him to climb. But activities must not continue too long at these early years. As important to the young child as activity is rest, so we alternate activity periods with quiet times.

Children in the early years have not yet developed long attention spans. Our cue then is to change activities frequently. They like to talk, often they want the center of the stage, and so we provide opportunities for each child to tell experiences about himself. He need not bring us stories of exciting adventures; we encourage him to describe simple activities of his daily life. These story-

telling experiences permit him to satisfy other needs such as experimenting with language, trying out new sounds, inventing words. We create time also for the children to give us make-believe stories. They learn to know the difference between real stories and make-believe ones, and so is introduced another bit of learning—distinguishing truth from fiction.

From the early grades children want to be members of a group. Part of our job is to plan activities in which class members may participate, activities that furnish more satisfactions from participation than from rejection.

Much is said about differences among children, but one thing we can predict about almost every child is that he wants to be liked—liked and accepted by his classmates and by the teacher. Children have many ways of showing this, some ways are better and more socially acceptable than others. They experiment, in school and out, with varieties of approaches to each other. They smile, they touch, sometimes they hit. In the classroom we set up opportunities for them to get to know each other. It is one of the best places for children to learn desirable and acceptable behavior. It is quite possible for a boy or girl to sit in a classroom for a school year hardly making a real acquaintance unless the teacher includes in her plans opportunities for close interaction.

Another universal need, I have noted, is success. Each child must sometimes bask in the glow of recognized achievement. He must feel "I did this well, I am good at this." A classroom that doesn't furnish every child opportunity to sit in the sun of success is a bleak classroom indeed! The furnishing may be fine, the windows generous and well spaced, there may be plants, goldfish, bulletin boards, but without plenty of opportunities for children, bright, aver-

age, dull, to feel occasionally, "I did this well," the classroom is no better than a bare, granite room.

This Helps, Too

The teacher needs plenty of help in determining specific needs of the boys and girls with whom he works. He must generalize; and by experience becomes sensitive to many of the things he must do. But the parent is the best source for learning more about each child's special needs. In Minneapolis the past few years we have been giving more and more time for parent-teacher conferences. This plan

involves various problems, adds to the teacher's and parent's day but it is well worth it because in planning to meet the child's needs we gain much from the people who know the child best. Also as the parent comes to understand what we are trying to do, the total home-school influence upon the child improves. The parent can ask the child more specific and intelligent questions about his day. The parent can help by occasionally clarifying for the child what we have been trying to accomplish in the classroom. Any help in doing our job better, of helping children grow, is welcome.

... I See Them from a Vantage Point

By VIRGINIA HATHAWAY

WHAT ARE SOME OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS the classroom of today makes to the child's growth? Does the classroom setting provide learning, not only of the three R's, but growth for the whole child? Does the classroom help the child to learn to live with others and respect their differences?

From a school psychologist's vantage point, it is fascinating to watch the influences, such as classroom and home upon children. The school and home often exchange roles. A good example is in the area of permitting the child to be himself. It is generally assumed that the home is always the freer place, the classroom necessarily imposing more restrictions. Yet numerous classrooms provide for certain children more scope for their needs, more room for them to spread their wings, than is furnished by their homes.

Parents, visiting school, are often astonished to watch their ordinarily shy and quiet youngsters deliver oral reports

with poise, exchange ideas fluently, and in other ways appearing self-sufficient and independent. This is simply an observation made of some children in some classrooms. A reverse situation can be true also. A fifth grader, outgoing and talkative in his home, may behave in quite another fashion within the classroom group.

We ask, "How does the school help the child to grow as a total individual?" There is evidence that association with children of the same age in itself leads toward growth and learning. If 25 six-year-olds spend a half-day together for one year, even without a teacher and without the ordinary curriculum, these children would probably have learned much at the end of the year. They would have learned give-and-take, they would have acquired skills at playing together, creating, working cooperatively. Add the guidance of a teacher, the rich full program offered in the ordinary kindergarten or first grade, and the gain is

immeasurably greater. When children spend hours in company with their own peers it stimulates their social growth.

A part of total development is acquiring respect for the rights and appreciation for the talents and attractive qualities in other children. Seven-year-old Roy in my office recently drew a bright, pleasant picture with crayons. When I told Roy his drawing was so pretty I would like to hang it on my wall, he smiled and replied, "Well, you can have it, but there is a girl in our grade, she sits across from me, could draw you a nicer picture." Roy has learned, by the end of second grade, that other children can do things well and is extending pride to their achievements.

School psychologists are impressed daily with the wide differences, even among those hosts of children who on the surface appear to be "just average." I have seen several thousand boys and girls for individual study. I recall the faces and some of the results of the tests, observations, and interviews with hundreds of these youngsters. Why? Not because I have a good memory. The studies, employing measures of intelligence, personality and interests, the interviews, have revealed such vivid differences, that one by one each child stands out in sharp imagery. Only those adults who view boys and girls casually and with indifference can fail to perceive these wide and essential variations.

School psychologists appreciate the enormity of the classroom teacher's task in providing for these differences. What an undertaking for a classroom teacher with 35 or more children whose abilities and needs cover such a wide range, to achieve a blended, working, cooperative group. The teacher is in the position of the orchestra conductor who strives to achieve a transparency without sacrifice of a single fine tone. No one instru-

ment should be overpowered or lost. But boys and girls are not easy to blend into a transparency for they ask from teachers what appear to be inconsistent and impossible satisfactions.

During the middle childhood years they form cliques and gangs and demand to follow lines of behavior which appear to be slavishly uniform. At the same time they may show equal persistence in asking for acceptance as special and unique personalities. These ambivalences, though challenging, are the heart of good development of youth. Do we not hope for a society of men and women, living in a cooperative fashion? A society which preserves the individual's own uniqueness enough to give room for achievements and for creative effort? Boys and girls—dressing alike, using the same vocabularies, humming the same tunes, yet demanding to be looked at as different and unlike—are the roots for that society.

Helping to interpret such contributions of the classroom is one of the activities of the school psychologist. He is called upon frequently to help interpret schools to parents, and likewise, to help school people understand parents.

Recently I met with about 50 parents to answer the question, "Does the classroom make allowance for different growth rates and for wide differences in personalities of children?" These fathers and mothers had asked for specific illustrations and proof: I selected only a few from the vast number of examples where classroom experiences were structured to meet wide divergences in abilities and in personalities.

This we know about children: from applying what we know about ways they grow; from watching them as they live; and from sharing our observations with each other.

Teaching Is

More Than Flying Blind

What will help to give direction and information with which to work with children? Suggestions are given by Helen Heffernan, assistant chief, Division of Instruction in Charge of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, Sacramento.

THE UNINITIATED WONDER AT THE SKILL and courage of the pilots and navigators who fly through unfavorable weather conditions and land their great ships with unerring accuracy. Years of study of physics, meteorology, and aerodynamics have gone into this achievement. The success of the pilot in accomplishing his mission is in direct ratio to his adherence to scientific principles.

More and more the work of the teacher is coming to be guided by orderly, well-established, scientific principles. But the variability in human beings and the ever-changing social needs make the analogy of the work of the teacher to the work of the pilot a limited one. The work of the teacher is infinitely more complex. The task of charting the most favorable course in educating children is one for which the availability of precision instruments is not soon likely. The modern teacher must view children against the background of a changing social-scientific world, a world characterized by changing life values.

The analogy of pilot and teacher is true in that both know their destination. The teacher's destination, as expressed in sound educational purposes, is less tangible and arrival must be determined by the extent to which the teacher helps children modify their behavior in terms of goals.

Many schools are developing their own guiding philosophy of education as children, parents, school personnel, and interested community members work together. Community groups who have endeavored to define the goals of education have expressed many elements in common. They believe that the school should . . .

- help each child achieve his maximum potentialities
- help each child acquire command of the skills of learning
- help each child to learn to think clearly
- help each child to develop initiative, originality, and creativity
- help each child to become a participating contributing member of a democratic society
- help each child to gain the knowledge and attitudes necessary for a wholesome personal and social life.

Although these are common purposes, every school and every teacher must chart a course which in many respects is unlike that of any other school or teacher. The experiences through which the goals are to be achieved cannot be set up once and for all time in some central office. Each school and each teacher must discover and use those experiences which will best serve the particular community, the particular group of children, and each individual child within the group.

Teachers are constantly alert to evidences of growth on the part of children and evidences of change in the community which makes it a better place in which children may grow to wholesome maturity. Thus, evaluation is an integral part of the educational program.

Planning and Evaluation

Evaluation is a day-by-day part of good teaching. Together children and teacher plan their purposes every day. "Where are we going from here? What are we planning to do? What are our next steps? What do we hope to accomplish today?" In a good planning period children are led to unify group purposes and determine needed activities and methods of procedure so that every member of the group knows the course which has been charted and the destination toward which efforts are directed.

Almost every day, the entire group evaluates progress toward goals. Sometimes it seems wise to modify the course in the light of experience, to make corrections, to re-define purposes. Children are encouraged to find new ways of solving their problems by securing evidence through experimentation.

At periodic intervals the entire program may be subjected to evaluation in broader terms—always related to the purposes of the educational program. Children, school staff, and community members all have a part in the evaluation. The effectiveness of the program is measured in terms of changed behavior in children. Many techniques are used to appraise growth of children such as anecdotal records, language and art expressions, tests, and sociograms. Changes are made in the light of systematic and carefully considered evaluation.

The Element of Control

The pilot knows his ship and how to handle it. Similarly the teacher knows children—their nature, needs, how they learn, and their rates of learning. He knows that a certain sequence of learning activities must be followed if concepts, attitudes, habits, skills, and appreciations are to be developed. He knows that

although children have certain likenesses in the pattern of development, each one is a unique personality because of inherited characteristics and his own social background.

The teacher knows ways to reach desired goals and can modify guidance to meet individual needs. At the same time, the teacher is not so overwhelmed by the task of ministering to individuals that he fails to observe cross currents in the classroom or underestimates the significance of peer relationships.

The teacher knows his instrument panel just as the pilot knows his. The teacher knows the value of careful observation of behavior, of systematic recordkeeping, of the use of measurement instruments. There are the co-workers in school to turn to for technical advice—the teacher next door, the principal, the guidance or curriculum consultants in the central office. Homes and schools of America are full partners in the joint enterprise in which they are engaged.

Parent-Teacher Conferences

Many schools are replacing traditional report cards with periodic teacher-parent conferences. If the conference is to be successful, the teacher needs objective evidence concerning the child to share with his parents. This evidence may take a variety of forms according to the maturity of the child concerned. A series of paintings made over a period of months may be revealing of growth, or of conflict and tension which the child is experiencing. Similarly, a set of spelling papers, arithmetic papers, or creative writing efforts may reveal growth or difficulties which the child is encountering. The teacher's anecdotal records of behavior on the playground, during a planning period, or in any other social situation are revealing of strengths and needs. A list of the library books the

child has read is frequently an index of his interests.

Parents need reassurance that their child is growing normally. The teacher need never use judgmental terms in discussing a child's development with his parents if the material at hand reveals his interests, his progress, and the developmental tasks which are currently engaging his energies. Only on the basis of these are parents and teachers in a position to help the child take his next steps successfully.

What Do Parents Expect?

A general supervisor in a northern California county¹ asked a group of parents what they thought the school could do to improve home-school relationships. These comments reflect the concern of parents about school:

I wish the school would make me feel more welcome.

I do not want to be told the bad points about my child; I know them already.

The school should establish the right attitude toward school work.

I think it is important that the child like school.

The school should establish a liking for books and reading.

The school should teach the child to assume responsibility.

I am afraid school teaches a child to fear failure. If one is afraid of failure, he will be hesitant to try new things. I should like school to help John not be afraid to fail and that we learn through failure.

There is so much for children to learn during the first year of school. What would happen if reading were postponed?

I am afraid a child is rushed too much to have time to enjoy what he is learning.

The school should help the child learn to express himself clearly and freely.

I wish the school would help my child learn to take care of his belongings.

I wish the school would help my child to respect the feelings of others.

The school should help parents in knowing what to do at home to help the child to succeed at school.

I worry about Jean having a teacher she does not like; this will be her first contact with outsiders.

If the teacher collects a considerable quantity of objective material about each child he has in hand the best possible material for helping parents to understand the program of the school.

The Cumulative Record

How long should such information about an individual child be kept as a part of the cumulative record? Eventually, schools may consider these materials of such significance that provision will be made for some type of permanent filing. At the present time, however, teachers will find invaluable a generous folder for each child in which samples of his work may be kept over a period of at least a year. A similar folder may be kept for such basic data as reports on psychological examinations, achievement tests, anecdotal records, records of teacher-parent conferences, and the like. From these materials, certain information may be ultimately transferred in an abbreviated form to the child's permanent cumulative guidance record. The original materials from both folders will be valuable if they can be transmitted from teacher to teacher. If possible such records should constitute a part of a person-to-person conference in which the present teacher makes his experience available to the child's next teacher.

Occasionally, a teacher says that he does not want any evidence about a child, that he does not want anyone to "prejudice" him against a child, that he wants the child to come with "a clean slate." No one would disagree with this point of view if the conference were a "gossip

¹For these and subsequent responses of children, the author is indebted to Mrs. Gladys Marsh, primary supervisor, Humboldt County Schools, Eureka, California.

fest" which disregarded the sanctity of the child's personality. Any information a teacher acquires about a child or his family demands professional and confidential use. But as teachers grow in their understanding of behavior, as they realize that all behavior is caused and is not its own cause, as they become aware of the fact that the causes of behavior are multiple, complex, and inter-related, they tend to drop judgmental terms from their vocabularies and change their approach to behavior. The insight which teachers gain when they approach behavior sympathetically and scientifically is as indispensable to the next teacher as the evidence the diagnostician passes on to a surgeon or other specialist who will continue a patient's treatment.

Teachers are increasingly recognizing that "feelings are facts." They find it revealing to ask children in the middle grades to answer such questions as: "What did you, or what didn't you like about first and second grade?" One teacher who recorded the answers from children in their third and fourth years in school found cause for reflection in the following thoughts expressed by the children:

I hated to sit still.

We sat for hours and hours and hours.

I didn't like to read; I know.

My hand got tired when I wrote.

I didn't like to be scolded. I hid under my desk. Then I got scolded some more.

I used to pretend I was asleep with my head on my desk so I wouldn't have to say the words on the cards. I didn't like to do that.

Those cards gave me a headache—everybody shouting the words.

I liked when the teacher told us stories. I still remember some of them.

I liked to sit around and talk—you know, like in a circle.

I liked to play with the others.

When I cried because I was lonesome for my Mommy, Mrs. B. said sometimes she felt like crying too. I felt better then.

I used to like to play with the blocks—to build things. I wish I wasn't too big now. (a third grade child.)

To dance to the records, with the scarf.

I would rather be dumb and have fun like the first grade. Now we have to learn things. I'll be glad when I get it all learned so I can have fun some more.

What the Children Want

The free responses of children when asked what they wished they might do in school or what they really thought about their school, revealed attitudes which might justify considerable modification of the school organization or curriculum. These were typical responses as children gave them:

I would like time to paint—finish something you know.

School wastes so much of my time.

Try out things.

Not listen to teacher talk so much.

Take off your things, sit down, stand up, go outside, put on your things, go home. Hurry, hurry, hurry, hurry. That's school.

School always wants me to do something I can't.

I wish school didn't make me feel so dumb.

I wish I had time to read.

I try and try and the teacher says I don't.

And so, teaching is more than flying blind. The teacher uses all the resources at his command to understand children. He records what he learns to guarantee continuity in the child's learning. Day-by-day the teacher works with the group of children to plan and evaluate.

The teacher isn't flying a set course by remote control. Direction may be changed, alternative routes taken in terms of the needs of children. Fathers and mothers are eager to have a hand in the navigation along with fellow teachers and technical consultants.

New horizons in the personalities of children, teacher, and everyone concerned emerge as they glimpse the shining vision of the ultimate destination.

As We Know, So Must We Do

Not one of the five principles mentioned in this article will be new to the reader. But do we do as well as we know? This is a challenge to anyone who works with children. John I. Goodlad is professor of education and director of the Division of Teacher Education, Emory University and Agnes Scott College, Georgia.

THERE IS HARMONY IN LIFE. THERE IS harmony in the way human beings grow and develop. It is right before our eyes to be seen and to be heeded. And to make it even plainer, this harmony has been examined, has been subjected to the closest scrutiny. Research has confirmed what casual observation suggests: our growth and development are guided by principles so governing that these principles might well be termed "laws."

It is said that thirty years lapse before our research in education is translated into classroom practice. The implications of this statement may not be all on the debit side. In dealing with human resources we must be sure of what we do and so this lag may be time for "fact" to be confirmed as fact. But when facts have been added to more facts . . . and when facts have been duplicated and reduplicated . . . and when chains of facts have been built into principles . . . then the voice that pleads for time to weigh facts before acting is the voice neither of caution nor of wisdom. It is the voice of lethargy and ignorance.

Here are five statements of fact and principle. *Do you accept them as such?* If you do not, you are urged to go to the sources. The results will be reward-

ing. *Do your practices confirm or belie the statements?* If your vision is clear and steady and shows a close relationship between accepted statement and daily practice this article can serve only to reaffirm your faith. This in itself will be a service because earnest teachers need much reaffirmation in doing what they believe to be right when so many pressures urge or bribe or intimidate them to be hypocritical. If your examination reveals a discrepancy, begin now to act more closely in accordance with what research has confirmed.

WE KNOW . . . and yet

WE KNOW that there is a mental-age range of at least four years among first graders AND YET many of us go on expecting the entire group to be able to read by the end of the first year. We know that children do not learn to read satisfactorily until into their seventh year of mental and physical readiness. Some children reach this stage in their fifth year of life (age four); others not until their ninth (age eight) or even later. Both extremes are in that class that entered the first grade in September—the child who was ready for reading two years ago and the child who may not be ready for two or more years.

What are our expectations for these children? That both will be at the same place by June? Expectations of this kind do a criminal injustice to both extremes and to those of less extreme ability who fall between. The pressures placed upon some children to read during their first year at school are such that their progress toward reading actually is inhibited and their desire to read is so curbed that they have no later desire to read more than the daily newspaper.

Children at both ends of the ability scale merit equal attention but of a different sort. They need activities that challenge, that foster strengths, that remedy weaknesses, that prepare for the next step. These things we know. Do we do as well as we know?

WE KNOW . . . and yet

WE KNOW that there is a spread of seven or eight years among fifth graders in various areas of attainment AND YET much of our equipment, much of our teaching material, much of our instructional method is geared to a spread of only seven or eight months. A study of a fifth-grade class will reveal that some children are reading at the second-grade level and some at the tenth. We will find that some are capable only of third-grade arithmetic while others are comfortable with what usually is taught in the eighth. A good look will reveal children smaller than many third graders. But then we may be startled to find that we have to look up to catch the eye of that fellow who has been tripping over things so much lately.

We know all this. We just have to look now and then to see it. And yet big fellows in fifth grades all over America are sitting in desks that are only imperceptibly larger than those occupied by the little fellows. And fifth graders all over America who are slow in arith-

metic will be struggling next May with the problems their mathematically-inclined classmates toyed with last September. Or worse, both will be paying homage to what is normally thought to be fifth-grade work. One group, in return, will be experiencing the bitterness of undeserved failure; the other the inflated coin of undeserved reward.

We know that the realities of human growth and development defy the arbitrariness of grade standards. We know that learning is a continuous and sequential thing that does not end in June and begin in September. We know that grades were introduced as an administrative convenience and that they never were intended to impede or regiment learning. Let us act, then, in ways that reflect this knowledge. Let's place the big ones in seats that fit the boys and girls we see. Let's carry the slow ones along from where they left off yesterday. Let's help the gifted ones cope with the problems that challenge them today. Let's accept the truth that lies before us. If we do, we'll be proud of the spread of attainments, that grows greater with good teaching.

WE KNOW . . . and yet

WE KNOW that a child doesn't grow up all of a piece AND YET we continue to make educational pronouncements that affect all of him on the basis of evidence that reflects only part of him. A twelve-year-old suddenly shoots up to fifteen-year-old size. But mentally he appears to stand still or even to regress. A six-year-old moves quickly from things to ideas to words. But the idea behind "seven" baffles him. One eight-year-old may be precocious in his lessons but sharing with other eight-year-olds comes hard. Jean reads aloud with a wonderful sense of timing but the ball never goes where she aims. Some parts shoot ahead in their development; others drag



Courtesy, San Diego County, Calif.

What are our expectations for these children?

wearily behind. The part that surges forward this year pauses and stumbles next year. Growth and development are like that.

But do we pay attention to what is before our eyes to see? Some of us would put third graders, who can't read words, in special schools even though motor development, social skills, and physical growth may be up to par. A surprisingly large percentage of us base promotion on scholastic attainment regardless of growth in other factors. And still others of us establish instructional groups in all areas on the basis of proficiency in reading—and maintain these groups regardless of individual fluctuations that take place within groups. These things we would not do if we did as well as we know.

When we do as we know we look for a slowing-up somewhere else after physical growth has taken a sudden spurt. We look at a wide range of factors if the school system regulations call for annual decisions on promotions. We group according to attainment in the particular activity to be carried on. We look for strengths in some things and weaknesses in others. We set as many

different levels of expectancy as there are children and as there are activities when we pay attention to the fact that children do not grow up all of a piece.

WE KNOW . . . and yet

WE KNOW that the causes of behavior problems are many and complex AND YET we isolate single elements as adequate basis for pronouncing diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment in the widest possible range of behavior patterns. The six-year-old we see before us has been working for a long time on and with what he was given at conception. He has been working in the peculiar set of circumstances in which he found himself. He has learned a way of behaving which, under a given set of circumstances, brings a rich and satisfying reward. Faced with new circumstances, he first tries the old ways of reacting. When these are dissatisfying, he tries again. Successive failures may produce a wall of defensive mechanisms tougher than turtle shells. These ways of behaving, these ways of protecting one's self, become solidly built over the years.

And so, if we're not careful to think, Joe's lack of energy is just plain laziness.

Sue's many squabbles are attributed to a mean and vicious nature. Billy's poor school work is lack of application; "he could do so much better if he tried!" All June needs to straighten her out is a word of praise now and then. And Sam never does what he's told because "he's got a stubborn streak in him." How ready we are to mistake the symptom for the cause!

Teachers who would understand behavior study children over time. They study case histories. They record observed behavior. They use the scientific instruments available to them. They visit the homes. They set up tentative hypotheses. They test these hypotheses. Conclusions, like hypotheses, are tentative and are revised on the basis of new evidence. Decisions arrived at in this scientific way are far from perfect but they are infinitely better than snap judgments based on hunch and intuition. Teachers today must adapt their own behavior to the fact that the causes of behavior are multiple and complex.

WE KNOW . . . and yet

WE KNOW that adjustment to peer group culture is a powerful directive in determining children's behavior AND YET we create conflicting currents that jeopardize the accomplishment of this developmental task. Children live in a complex series of worlds, one of which is confined almost exclusively to their own peers. The requirements for belonging include being like others. "Being like others" among ten-year-old boys means, for one thing, being a boy. "Being like others" among five-year-olds may mean carrying the same kind of lunch box to kindergarten. "Being like others" among fourteen-year-olds may mean bleaching a lock of hair. Being unlike others in ways that are not approved by one's peer group may lead to

adjustment problems that make normal, happy, living difficult.

We create cross currents when we needlessly endorse values that run counter to those of the gang. And so insisting that the girls play ball with the boys when the boys insist that girls only get in the way may create strife that might easily have been avoided. Perhaps we could do more for Jimmy Bookworm by helping him pitch a ball than by helping him compensate through openly praising his attainments in reading. We fight the current when we ignore the direction of group intent.

We may disagree with gang values. We may abhor the gang's list of approved accomplishments. We may be genuinely disturbed about the goals of gang behavior. It may be imperative that we move to remedy what has become an intolerable situation. But our steps will be sure ones when we examine peer group culture and act in the light of what we find. Children must learn the ways of their peers. Let us not block the road to this learning. Let us seek to make these ways worth learning.

WE KNOW . . . AND SO

WE KNOW, from the facts that research has given us, that a set of basic principles may be stated to help us in guiding the behavior of boys and girls. AND SO let us first make these principles so much a part of us that they govern our behavior *with* children to the same degree that they explain the behavior of children. Let us continuously observe the learning laboratories that are our classrooms to see whether or not they reflect the principles we have made part of our being. If we examine what we see, if we heed what we learn, if we act in the light of what we know, our decisions cannot help but be increasingly better.

Do We Know What We Are Doing?

Does research back our practices? What do we need to find out? This article should challenge many areas of complacency. Mary Beauchamp is assistant director of the Center for Field Services, New York University.

There was a child went forth every day,
And the first object he look'd upon, that
object he became,
And that object became part of him for the
day or a certain part of the day,
Or for many years of stretching cycles of years.

—WALT WHITMAN

DO WE KNOW WHAT OUR CHILDREN ARE becoming as they go forth each day to school? Are children having the best chance to grow in school? Do we know whether it is "good" for six-year-old Sally to spend the major part of each day with thirty-six other six-year-olds? Are we sure that most children should enter school at the same age? Do children grow toward maturity in a democratic society by being with others of similar I.Q.'s, abilities, and disabilities?

Our knowledge of child growth and development (available to us from biology, anthropology, sociology, psychology, mental hygiene, and group dynamics) suggests that many practices must be rethought if we are to produce a generation of citizens capable of coping with today's challenges. This article will attempt to raise a number of questions about commonly accepted practices, especially about social structures and arrangements in the classroom, and suggest additional research needed if we are to educate on a sound scientific foundation.

Research in social psychology and

group dynamics substantiates three hypotheses pertinent to grouping practices:

- That all distinctively human behavior is learned.
- That we are valuable to each other because of our differences rather than our similarities.
- That the dynamic power of a group is derived from the interdependence of group members. R. W. Gerard states the hypothesis this way: "It is of the deepest import that in every instance there has been a progressive emphasis on cooperation with advancing evolution. Units become more unlike, more specialized, and so more necessary to each other. . . ."

Let's apply these hypotheses to three areas of school practice, namely admission procedures, grouping of children, and promotional policies.

Admission procedures. Traditionally, we have established a date which is supposed to indicate all children's readiness for entrance to school. In many localities, if Bill was born on January 1 instead of December 31, he must wait a year before he may begin school. Thus, dogmatically, regardless of other factors, we group children together who happen to have been born during the same twelve-month period established arbitrarily by the school. Why? It is a convenient system, easy to administer, and we have done it that way for a long time. But do we have reason to believe that this kind of admission procedure is most conducive for healthful living and learning?

Perhaps we need to re-examine our admission procedures. What does it mean to *be ready for school*? Or should every child begin school on his fifth or sixth birthday? Should we then turn our attention to the readiness of the school to accept children regardless of the wide range of individual differences in growth stages? Is it necessary or desirable for the school day to be the same length for all children of one group? If every child is counted important, do not our regulations have to be flexible enough so that each child may have the optimum chance to grow?

Grouping of children. We should examine such practices as placing children together in groups which are alike in age, I.Q., abilities, and disabilities. Does a child learn to read by being in a group of non-readers? Does a child learn to sing by sitting next to a so-called monotone? Does a child develop social maturity by being in a group of immature children?

Following these hypotheses we must examine the practice of pitting individual children and groups of children against each other. Does a group reach its potential in working relationships by stressing competitive activities? Is the world's work done by individuals trying to outdo each other? What do we do to a child when we teach him that he is dumb, that he can't learn to read as fast as others? How can a child respect himself when he is constantly reminded by mechanically arranged social structures, forced upon him, that he doesn't quite fit? Are we teaching dullness to many, many children? Are we teaching resentment, rejection, belittlement, and exclusiveness? How would *you* like to be placed in a group composed of individuals who share your most prominent weakness and then be forced to spend some time in that group each day for a

year or longer? How would you like working for a set goal which other groups, without this weakness, attain with ease?

Some social arrangements more nearly in keeping with respect for the dignity of childhood have been tried, with the result that happy, relaxed children have progressed academically in tune with their own growth patterns and have been free of the tensions often found in school. In 1938, Howard A. Lane and the teachers of Highcrest School in Wilmette, Illinois, developed a school program which valued the interdependence of children and which allowed groups to be fluid enough that children might associate with those they found helpful. "Four-year-olds may find life meaningful and joyous even with the third-grade children."

An extension of this idea has been developed by a number of private schools in recent years under the name of inter-age grouping. This plan was discussed by Mr. Lane in an article entitled "Mortatorium on Grouping":

Let us have two grades in the elementary school, *upper* and *lower* might suffice as names for them although I should like to get away from implications of greater worth for either. Children would remain in the lower grade until the ninth birthday . . .

We shall have four lower grade teachers working as a team with one hundred children, and we can handle more if we must. These teachers will have neighboring rooms and some common facilities and equipment. They will teach with their doors and hearts open to all of the children in that grade. When we first organize this grade the teachers will deal out the children into groups of approximately equal size. They will then make shifts in grouping in terms of individual children and each teacher's suitability for working with certain individuals. They will manipulate the grouping so that the groups will differ in average age, some predominantly older, some younger, but each will include children from the entire age range. This will

permit children to be with children predominately younger or older as his peculiar needs will require. This need is seldom related to mental age or academic skill.

This team of teachers, knowing the children as people, will in consultation make such shifts in grouping as individual and group needs indicate. In these mixed groups children will actually and clearly be different in all aspects of growth and adjustment. In the mixed group no one could expect everyone to achieve even similar goals, do the same lessons, learn from the same books. Yet most of us discuss each day the United Nations, the blessings and perils of soap and water, the merits of radio programs, the price of butter, the antics of Congress, and other significant topics in social groups that range thirty years or more in age. In this new grade, teachers cannot escape the responsibility for providing opportunities for activities which engage the common interests and permit the participation of individuals with differing interests, resources, and abilities without attendant differences in value and respect.

Inter-age grouping is one social structure which takes account of the hypotheses mentioned earlier. Those who have tried it have commented on the happy, constructive social relationships which it encourages; yet outside of such private schools as New Lincoln, Boardman, Walden, and a very few public schools, this type of grouping has not been tried out. Are we so wedded to standardization, to routinization, to treating each child *as if* he were like every other child that we are overlooking a social arrangement which would help children to grow, to be happy and enthusiastic about school? Perhaps we should ask ourselves why the "unwilling school boy" and the "old maid school teacher" have become symbols of our culture.

Promotional policies. Closely akin to grouping are our promotional policies. Some of the questions we might ask are: Why have grades? What sets apart a first

grader from a second grader? Is there any scientific base for believing that living with one teacher for nine months is sufficient for a small child? Why should all children be dismissed from school for a three-month summer vacation which amounts to turning the children out on the streets in many of our large cities? I wonder what would happen if we really thought of school as a living process and just set out to live in the best way we knew with a group of children for a period of time in a context of interesting and dynamic experiences which would challenge their imaginations, quicken their curiosities, and cause them to work together on significant projects in order to learn and do the things which are important to learn and to do!

These are a few of the questions about school practices which need re-examination in the light of what we *do* know about the way children grow and develop.

Additional Research Needed

A mere sketch of additional research needed is all that can be indicated. Perhaps research similar to that of the Eight Year Study is needed, specifically in the area of human relations. It should be done in such a way that accepted classroom practices and school organizations are examined critically. A set of principles might be developed from the latest and most widely accepted child growth and development research and then *all* school practices evaluated against these principles. For instance, some studies need to be made which would indicate the maximum and minimum school population of an elementary school for optimum development of children.

To this writer five types of research seem needed. The various investigations should be planned so that the pieces of the research make a whole which will

contribute to the development of total concepts.

1. Interdisciplinary research is urgently needed so that whatever the problem it may be looked at as a whole and the various disciplines may contribute to the understandings which are brought to the study. Lawrence Frank's approach in *Personality and Culture* is an example of this type of interdisciplinary approach. Particularly do the insights of the newer disciplines such as psychiatry and group dynamics need to be developed in relationship to those studies. An example of this type of study is that being done by Charlotte Babcock on the acculturation of Japanese Americans. The early child-training practices through three generations of Japanese Americans are being studied using techniques drawn from sociology, social anthropology, psychology, and psychoanalytic fields.

2. *Longitudinal studies* on children are needed—such as one being directed by Roger G. Barker and Herbert F. Wright in a small town in the Midwest. (Reported by Dorothy Barclay, *New York Times*). Perhaps a number of longitudinal studies might be undertaken simultaneously in different types of communities so that comparable data could be derived. Another such study is being carried on at the University of Michigan under the direction of Willard C. Olson. It tests the predictive value of longitudinal multidiscipline data collected in the preschool and elementary school years as they relate to later achievement and behavior in adolescence.

3. *Group dynamic studies in the classroom* are needed. The large body of research in group dynamics has been outside the classroom, in groups of voluntary membership. We need a great many studies which will investigate group dynamics in the classroom. We especially need studies which are concerned with whole concepts to supplement the many sociometric studies now available.

4. *Functional curriculum studies* are needed. We need studies which will bring child growth concepts in functional relationship with curriculum practices. More data is needed, for instance, on the relationship between the way something is taught and the content taught, between children's attitudes and feelings and how well they learn, the effect of arranged environments upon children.

5. *Group research.* The types of studies

which are needed are ones which require groups of investigators working together, each having specialized functions, but organized as a team investigating a whole concept. This will require a slightly different kind of organization of graduate schools than now prevails in most universities.

School teaching has developed to a point that from now on *only* people who are with children day by day can add to our understanding of what we do to children. Teaching has always been an art. It has become a science requiring of the teacher a high degree of professionalism. We will know more fully what we do to children as those of us who teach become more aware of the infinite possibilities of childhood.

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Trends in Child Development Research

Keeping up with current research in child development is a big order. In order to see some of the directions in which research is moving we present these trends. C. Evan James is assistant professor of education, Washington State College, Pullman.

A REVIEW OF CURRENT LITERATURE IN child development reveals such a wide range of research that one who wishes to keep fully informed about recent developments is often bewildered by the richness of the offering. In 1949 the Children's Bureau began reporting research in progress. Starting with an original publication of some 400 pages, they have issued supplements expanding this report over three times its original length. Additional research is listed in a host of professional bibliographies. It is reassuring to know that many people are now exploring the processes of child development. However, selection of material from these offerings which can profitably be put to specific use is time consuming.

There has always been considerable speculation about the fundamental causes of human behavior; but only for a comparatively short time has the subject been treated systematically and scientifically. Evidence of the sound progress and lasting importance of some of the work that has been done in this brief period may be found in carefully selected collections by editors who are themselves distinguished experts. For example, in *Readings in Child Psychology*, Wayne Dennis attempts to present articles which have not been previously collected. Three-quarters of these studies were

made prior to 1940. As recency alone is not a criterion of importance, an examination of these collections will help to provide a sound foundation by which current articles may be judged. Barker, Kounin, and Wright's *Child Behavior and Development* is another excellent collection.

Examination of materials indicates four trends that are of interest to teachers.

Group Dynamics

Group dynamics appears to be one of the major concerns of current writers and investigators. A return to the study of the child in the context of his environment is of considerable importance to those who must deal with the daily problems of children. It is probable that they will find in these materials a greater possibility of direct application in concrete situations.

One ambitious study of group dynamics is an attempt to evaluate the psychological ecology of an entire community relative to its effect upon the individual. Roger C. Barker, Herbert F. Wright and William A. Koppe are pioneering in research in this field.

People live their daily lives as parts of many groups. Their time is spent at home, at work, lunching with a service club, shopping, going to the movies, or

attending church. These groups are only related superficially. The Jones Family, the Smith Family, the Brown Family, The Tuesday Afternoon Club, are all unit settings in which activities take place. In a small Midwest town of 730, the settings which influenced behavior of children below the age of 12 were found to consist of a series of 453 distinct units. These behavior units were then rated—relative to time spent and frequency of participation—to attempt to evaluate their influence. The school and three groups in which the child was part of the family rated highest as individual units. Rating next were the times when the child was at the movies, on the streets and sidewalks.

These unit settings have certain elements in common. Time spent in the individual family units might be summarized as time spent by all children at home. The boy's club, going to the movies, and attending a picnic might all be classified in one equivalence group as recreation. When these 453 individual behavior units were related in equivalence groups, it was found that time spent in family settings was almost seven times that spent in school. Business settings were only half as important as school although they were twice as important as social-recreational settings.

These behavioral settings (e.g. Christmas Day) had a number of overlapping functions which they served in the community. It was found that they fell in the following rank order: (1) recreation (2) social interaction (3) aesthetic experience (4) nutrition (5) education.

It may come as a shock to many educators that children spend more time eating than in a school setting although it is the largest individual behavioral unit. Of course, the importance of home and recreational opportunities available has long been stressed as having an import-

ant effect upon the development of children, but nowhere has it been so concretely demonstrated. It becomes apparent that the school's effectiveness is rather sharply limited by these other factors.

Case history data was gathered on the individual children and their behavior observed to attempt to evaluate the social climate and its effect. A comparison of these findings leads to some interesting conclusions regarding the individual child's opportunities for adjustment. But of more significance was the final characterization of the town as a good place for young children to grow up.

Similar developments to those in social psychology have been carried into the field of psychotherapy. The treatment of a poorly adjusted child by a very skilled teacher is described by Virginia Axline in *Play Therapy* as an interesting illustration of the dramatic results that may be attained. Ernest, an extremely rejected child who had accidentally swallowed lye, was unable to eat solid foods or even retain water. By providing an environment in which he could deal with his problems, with particular emphasis upon the atmosphere of the classroom, he made a rather spectacular adjustment.

Longitudinal Description of Behavior

A comprehensive review of recent research indicates that longitudinal description of behavior is becoming more and more prevalent in recent years. A great deal has been done in attempting to discover the characteristics of children following Binet's idea of cross-sectional description of children at various age levels. A good example of this approach is Arnold Gesell's developmental study. Some useful and valuable ideas about the growth process have been formulated in this way. It has led, however, to a concept of growth as a series

of stages or phases. This idea was probably originally suggested by Freud, in his concept of the stages of psychosexual development.

This "stage" concept places great emphasis upon the early years of childhood. For example, J. A. L. Singh and R. M. Zingg, in *Wolf Children and Feral Man*, collected and as far as possible authenticated many stories of animal adoption of children at an early age to determine the effect of early training. They summarized their case histories and pointed out that in only one of the eight instances reported were the individuals able to recover even common human habit patterns. Wayne Dennis takes issue with their finding that influence of a child's early environment has a profound and lasting effect upon his subsequent behavior.

One of the most complete longitudinal studies is, of course, the regular follow-up done by Louis Terman relative to his "geniuses." These children have been studied from childhood through maturity. Current research is being done on their children. Likewise, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck's study of delinquents yielded valuable results by discovering that delinquency usually disappears with maturity and responsibility.

Patricia Neilon recently re-studied the one-year-old children reported by Mary M. Shirley. Without knowing anything about the previous study she analyzed these children who were then 17 years of age. A group of judges succeeded in matching these two analyses with such accuracy that Neilon was able to conclude that personality patterns are remarkably persistent during the growth of the child.

These conclusions have led to some rather divergent ideas about the formation and permanence of personality patterns and have stirred up considerable

controversy. M. A. Ribble and others have expressed some rather extreme views about the relative importance of love and affection in developing feelings of security in childhood. John E. Anderson and Wayne Dennis argue for a less fragile personality structure. It is their contention that the child's personality results from the roles that he is called upon to play within his family, social, and working groups. They feel that his picture of himself and his own concept of his role determines his behavior in that he consistently tries to play the part. They believe that this role is built up in many ways and is reinforced by his life experiences. This is, of course, in sharp contrast with previous ideas concerning stages of development and particularly with the Freudian emphasis on the importance and permanence of childhood traumatic experiences.

Developmental Tasks

Caroline Tryon's and Jesse Lilienthal's view of the relation between personality growth and learning experiences represents a departure which is so new and different that research projects are just beginning to be set up to test their hypothesis. They define the learnings, adjustments, and achievements which must be mastered to assure normal progress as "developmental tasks." As they are to some extent concurrent with physical growth there is an apparent chronological sequence. Tryon and Lilienthal have generalized these tasks into ten recognizable categories, each of which has a fairly well-defined sequence. An example of one of these categories is the "Achievement of Appropriate Dependence-Independence Patterns." The sequence of tasks is then:

1. Establishing one's self as a very dependent being
2. Beginning the establishment of self-awareness

3. Adjusting to less attention and becoming independent physically

4. Freeing oneself of primary identification with adults

5. Establishing one's independence from adults

6. Becoming independent in a mature way

These ideas are presumably important to educators as they base the personality growth of the child upon a learning process. If this is so, then it may be assumed that the learning process as practiced in the school has a direct bearing on the development of personality. That assumption leads to questions such as: "What experiences should a child have here and now?" "Next?" This theory does present a very challenging concept to those who must deal with children because of obvious implications for curriculum, methods, and materials.

Qualities of Human Behavior

A fourth trend is toward investigation of more concrete, rather than abstract, qualities of human behavior. Teachers, parents, social workers, and others may confidently look forward to even greater strides in the understanding of children.

These trends all represent a swing away from previous lines of thought. Although a great deal has been learned through study of animal behavior, recent researchers are concentrating more upon human behavior within its social context. They are eliminating many problems of setting up adequate scientific controls through the use of the child as his own control in longitudinal studies. New statistical methods have been developed and research is being subjected to more careful scrutiny so that results are more credible in terms of practical application.

The mass of research alone almost precludes a comprehensive summary. While there are other trends and many other reports of studies that might be

included here, those presented seem of greatest importance to people directly concerned with children.

Suggested Readings

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Science Experiences Afford Opportunity

Julian Greenlee, professor of biology and physics, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, has secured the cooperation of teachers working with children in preparing this section on science. The material gathered demonstrates that science is a part of an integrated program, that children are learning the why of classroom procedures, and that they are learning important ways of solving their own problems instead of being given answers.



DURING ALL ACTIVITIES CHILDREN ARE developing patterns of living, thinking, and working. The development of effective patterns calls for opportunities to work individually and collectively on problems of significance to them. Solutions to such problems require a flexible program and access to variety of resources. It presupposes a setting in which the children can raise questions and make discoveries for themselves. Sharing in the thinking, the satisfactions, the disappointments, and the obstacles to be overcome helps children cope with present life situations and prepares them for those of the future.

The teacher should continually have



Courtesy, Los Angeles City Board of Education, Calif.

in mind the values he holds important for children. Children are always developing attitudes toward themselves, their peers, and society as a whole. They do not develop attitudes in one setting and learn "content" in another. Hence, the content and procedures should be planned in terms of the total development of the children, with the teacher concerned that each experience has a positive effect in all directions. The development of desirable interpersonal and group relationships are equally as important as the science learnings.

A planned approach to finding solutions to problems is usually associated

with science experiences. Teachers need to become even more aware of the importance of a problem solving pattern of thinking and doing things in all kinds of human relationships. As they prize the development of self-reliance and civic competency they must help children use scientific ways of finding satisfying relationships in all kinds of experiences in group living.

The accounts which follow provide examples of different ways in which teachers and children planned together, problems were identified and worked through to satisfactory conclusions.

—JULIAN GREENLEE

... for a realistic approach to problems

By DOROTHY PUTT

ON MONDAY MORNING JOHNNY CAME into the kindergarten room and went to the easel to paint. He said, "Some one has used our paints—we just mixed them on Friday and the jars are not as full as they were."

Martha said, "Maybe the jars have holes in the bottom." They looked and found no holes. Then they came to see me with their problem. I said, "Some of the water you mixed in your paints has evaporated."

Johnny said, "Evaporated—that's a funny word. What does it mean?" I explained, "The water which has gone has disappeared into the air." Johnny said, looking puzzled, "Funny! I see no water in the air." I said, "It has changed from something which you could see to something which you can't see. When water changes this way we say it evapor-

ates. Water in the air is called water vapor. Water evaporates from everything that is wet."

The children became interested and alert in discovering other things that evaporated. Some of their observations were: tables and blackboards drying after washing; painted pictures drying; sinking of the water level in the aquarium; sand becoming dry; paste drying; clothes drying; sidewalks, pavements, grass, and leaves drying after rain.

One day later, several children came to school with wet feet from playing in a mud puddle. The next day, Billy said, "Our feet are dry today—the mud puddle is all evaporated."

We experimented to see how things dry faster. We washed doll clothes and hung some in the shade, some in the sun, some in the wind, and some in sheltered places. We dipped two cloths in water—squeezed one of them—hung both on a line and watched the results. We filled two pans with the same amount of water,

Cooperating with Mr. Greenlee were: Mrs. Hazel Maloney, Mrs. Dorothy Putt, teachers in Kalamazoo; Mrs. Mildred Green, teacher, Dowagiac, Mich.; Mrs. Rocelia Hill, Baseline Rural School, Bloomingdale, Mich.; Emeline McCowen, Campus School, Kalamazoo; Harley Mutsfeld, elementary science consultant, Battle Creek, Mich.; Marian Young, New Lincoln School, New York.

placing one in the sun and one in the shade and watched the results.

From these experiments the children learned that things dry faster when warmed and when in the wind. They discovered that the more water there is the longer it takes to dry. They had fun painting on the blackboard with clear water to see whose picture dried first. One day Mary said, "The cloths dried faster in the wind. I will make some wind

by fanning my picture to make it dry."

During the children's problem solving experiences, they discovered why they should keep paste, clay, and paint jars covered, and why they should wipe tables as dry as possible, in order to dry quickly. They learned to use just enough easel paint on pictures so they would dry in a reasonable length of time. They found that they should open umbrellas and place wet wraps near radiators.

. . . for widening horizons

By MILDRED GREEN

ONE OF OUR NEW LIBRARY BOOKS WAS about magnets. One child said that his father had a magnet. The teacher asked the children to bring their magnets from home for all to see. The next day three children brought horseshoe magnets, and the teacher had two bar magnets. One child said his magnet could lift his scissors. The other children tried that experiment. Many things were put on magnets, including nails, thumb tacks, paper clips, needles, jar lids, jacks, little metal cars, small chains, and many other objects, including erasers, pencils, chalk, string, plastic cars, marbles, and wood.

The teacher asked, "What are pencils made of?" One child said wood. Other wooden objects were used to see if they were attracted to the magnet, and it was discovered they were not. Discussion followed concerning materials used in making marbles, string, and paper. The teacher then asked what nails were made of. One child said metal. The children experimented with the metal objects, with coins, and the frame around the window-panes. The magnet was not attracted to the coins or the metal window frame. Therefore the magnet didn't attract all metals.

One child asked if the window frames were made of silver like the dime, because they were silver colored. Discussion followed and another child said her mother had a pan at home that looked like the metal in the frames—it was aluminum.

Another child said a nail was made of iron; and experiments were conducted using an iron skillet and an old-fashioned flat iron.

The teacher had a knife at school. The blade and magnet were attracted to each other, but the children didn't think the metal in the knife looked like the metal in the nail. More study followed and more steel was introduced. Experiments followed by making the nail and the knife blade a magnet. Which one held its magnetism longer? It was discovered that tacks fell almost instantly from the magnetized nail after it separated from the magnet and didn't from the magnetized knife blade. Therefore steel stayed magnetized longer than iron.

Many experiments were conducted before the children discovered they must run the magnetic pole over the nail and blade in the same direction in magnetizing them.

In experimenting with the bar magnets the children discovered that the pole with an N on it was attracted to the pole of the other bar which had an S on it. By using the bar magnet they discovered which pole of the horseshoe magnet was an N pole and which an S pole.

The children also discovered that the magnet would pick up a piece of paper if there were paper clips or a nail under the paper. They could move a needle across a piece of paper by moving a magnet under the paper. This was also tried successfully with a pane of glass.

. . . for work in other fields

By HAZEL MALONEY

THIS YEAR, WHEN MY FOURTH-GRADE class came to the place in their arithmetic where they were asked to find the difference in temperature between two given cities, they became curious about thermometers.

Alice and Mary offered to study the origin, kinds, and uses of the thermometer and report back to the class. A few days later they presented a report to the group. Blackboard drawings and a thermometer from home helped them illustrate their points.

The class decided to keep temperature recordings for a week, both inside and outside a window. A child read and recorded both temperatures three times a day. We had a large thermometer for all to practice taking readings until they were able to read it easily.

After we had talked about the various kinds of thermometers, we invited the school nurse to talk to us about the fever thermometer and its uses. Most of the children had experienced having their temperatures taken, but even so they wanted to know more about what temperatures of 98 degrees, and 99 degrees meant. They asked such questions as: "How high can one's temperature go and the person still live?" "Does it ever go below 98 degrees?"

When we returned to the arithmetic story problems, we found that one prob-

lem talked about boiling temperatures of 212 degrees. They were both interested and confused by this, and so we decided to try it.

A hot plate, a cooking thermometer, and a container of water were assembled on our all-purpose table. The temperature of the water was less than that of the room. Next, the water with the thermometer in it was placed on the hot plate. The children watched with keen interest as the mercury started to rise. Finally, when the water started boiling, and the mercury reached about 212 degrees F, they were pleased with their experiment.

We culminated our study with reading about and discussing pasteurization. Again, a child made a study and gave a report. Children asked such questions as: "Is the milk heated to 150 degrees?" "Is the milk boiled?" Other children had visited a dairy and could tell us about the process. During that week children read and brought weather reports to school. Certain children listened to radio reports, we talked about how our clothing is affected by the temperature. We read in our health books about suitable choices of clothing for hot and cold weather.

During their experiences the children learned to count by 2's and to use fractions such as $\frac{1}{2}$ of 2. In finding differences in temperatures they increased

their skill in subtraction as well as in making comparisons such as higher, lower, more, and less. Their experience made arithmetic problems more meaningful and worth while and aroused in-

terest in weather reports on radio and in newspaper. This proved to be a worthwhile study since it gave increased knowledge through an activity which held their interest all year.

... for experimentation

By HARLEY MUTSFELD

IN DECEMBER THE SECOND GRADE WAS discussing Christmas bells. "Why do some bells go 'tinkle tinkle' and others go 'ding dong'?" asked one child. That was a real problem for these second graders and led into an extensive study of sound. First they experimented with several different things that made sound. They discovered they could change the sound of a rubber band by stretching it tighter or by loosening it. They discovered that the rubber band had to be plucked and made to vibrate before it made sound. The word *vibrate* was new. They decided to use it as they talked about sound rather than the other terms they had been using such as *jarring*, *jiggling*, *going back and forth real fast*.

They wondered if they could discover what made the high sounds and the low sounds when they stretched and loosened their rubber bands. It was suggested that if the sounds are from vibrations, then the vibrations must change. Through further observation they discovered they could see the vibrations of the rubber bands on low sounds, while on high sounds they could not. One boy suggested that this could be like the wheels on his bicycle. When the wheels went slowly he could see the spokes in the wheels. When they went fast he couldn't see the spokes but he knew they were still there. He reasoned that on low sounds the rubber band was vibrating slowly and the vibrations could be seen,

but on high sounds the vibrations were so fast that they could not be seen. The class then generalized that slow vibrations made low sounds and fast vibrations made high sounds.

They borrowed a set of tuning forks from the music teacher and experimented to prove some of the things they had learned so far. By feeling the tuning fork when it was making its noise they proved that sounds were made by vibrations because it tickled their fingers. Then they lowered the tuning fork down into a bowl of water while it was sounding and the vibrations of the tuning fork splashed and made ripples in the water. However, when it was not making any sound the tuning fork would neither tickle their fingers nor splash and ripple the water.

The class then experimented with water glasses and bottles with varying amounts of water and discovered that the mass or size of an object affects the sound it produces. They tuned a scale by filling water glasses with varied amounts of water. Following this, quite an extensive study of musical instruments was made with attention to what produced the tone or sound and the size of the instrument in relation to its producing high or low sounds.

The children felt that they had a pretty good idea of why some bells go "tinkle tinkle" and others go "ding dong" after this study of sound.

. . . for work on significant problems

By G. MARIAN YOUNG

ON THE FIRST DAY OF SCHOOL A THIRD-grade child greeted her teacher with, "My daddy said he would bring the potatoes anytime you want them." She then explained that the potato crop had to be dug before school opened, and her father had brought them into the city for whatever purposes the children and teacher wished to use them.

The comments had a significant history. These children had planted a garden at the country home of one of the parents. In April the children, some of the parents, and the teacher had driven fifty miles to plant seeds for lettuce, radishes, carrots, spinach, and potatoes. A few weeks later a trip was made for the purpose of weeding. At a later time a Saturday picnic occurred with a chance to eat some radishes, carrots, and lettuce as a part of their lunch. It is doubtful if raw vegetables had ever been so tasty.

Throughout this gardening experience the children and teacher encountered many problems. Some were related to personal interests. Some had to do with scientific understandings. Specific decisions had to be made such as: (1) Who would plant the seeds for each vegetable? (2) How many could work well together on a committee? (3) What clothes should be worn on each trip? (4) What food should they take to eat? (5) Whose parents were free and had cars for transportation? (6) Who would ride in which car? (7) How much time could be provided for free play and a chance to roam? (8) What time should they leave and what time should they return? (9) How should they keep all parents informed?

Such problem solving was close to each

child. Decisions were made on the basis of common good and willingness to live up to agreements. Efforts for group purposes provided a background for learning how to contribute in cooperative endeavors. Group thinking brought decisions for action based on the best choices that children, teacher, and parents could make for the purposes they hoped to accomplish. Problems requiring scientific information also needed solving: (1) How deep and far apart to plant the seeds? (2) How many weeks would each vegetable need to 'grow before it could be eaten? (3) How should potatoes be cut to assure an "eye" in each piece for planting? (4) How should the knives be used and cared for on the potato cutting day? (5) Would the soil have enough food for the vegetables to grow? (6) Would it rain often enough or would someone need to water the garden? The children realized the significance of these problems in making the gardening venture a success. Some could be solved with materials in the classroom and school; others needed the help of people and information from other sources.

Before the first trip, the parent who owned the home showed a movie of his home, yard, garden, and nearby woods to help prepare the children for what they would see and do. Another film was studied to help them understand how soil is made, and the methods that this parent had used to increase and maintain the fertility of the soil for a good garden. The need for information led the children to become more efficient in locating and using materials, books, and pamphlets in their room, in other class-

rooms, and in the library. They had a chance to learn techniques of gathering together facts, understandings, and skills which applied to particular problems, of deciding upon action and ways to carry it out, and of analyzing and organ-

izing information for their purposes. It is believed that with the successful solution of the problems, there was opportunity to develop conviction that life situations can be met and ways can be found to cope with them.

... for using children's interests

By EMELINE E. McCOWEN

A GROUP OF THIRD-GRADE CHILDREN found a variety of interests which they wished to explore. They agreed on four activities: bridges, boats, trains, and animals. The children recognized the need for some form of organization based on individual interests. After groups were arranged the teacher helped them find meeting places with facilities for carrying out their work.

For the next two days the teacher observed the children's progress, noting particularly their method of organization and planning. The children who were in the Bridge Group were the first to recognize certain specific needs. They concluded that to carry out their work properly it was necessary to have a leader, a librarian, a recorder, a bulletin board supervisor, and someone to be responsible for the art work. As all of the members of the group wanted to share in these responsibilities, Jon remarked, "Why not have each person selected for these positions choose a helper? In this way everyone can participate." The idea was enthusiastically adopted.

After several days of planning, the teacher suggested that each group report to the whole class. Since the Bridge Group had made faster progress, their leader volunteered to report first. The remaining groups received valuable ideas which they used in their planning and organization.

Interest among the children became so keen that the teacher decided to allow them to use the entire morning for this work. At the end of each morning session a group presented a report, thereby making it possible for all the children to evaluate the work that was being done.

The concepts, generalizations, and learnings which resulted as these committees functioned were many and covered all areas of daily school living. Specifically the children realized that it takes many people—thinking, experimenting, and working together—to improve our way of living.

They became familiar with some of the ways in which we benefit from the cooperative efforts of many people. Following are a few examples: The development of new materials and techniques for the construction of bridges has enabled us to progress from the fallen logs and stepping stones of an earlier day to the miles of suspension bridges of today. Various means of purifying water enable us to have it safe for all purposes. We harness the energy of fuel for propelling ships and trains so that we have reliable and fast transportation in all kinds of weather. We have developed systems of communication that enable us to know almost immediately about happenings on any part of the earth. Because of advances in train refrigeration we transport fresh fruits and vegetables to all

parts of our country. We benefit from the efforts of many people when we need information about the lives, habits, food,

and homes of animals or the adaptations they make to seasonal changes. We have developed animals for specific purposes.

. . . for common interests of all ages

By ROCELIA HILL

"LISTEN," SAID A SEVEN YEAR OLD ONE afternoon during chatter period. Instantly our room was quiet. "Chr-r-r, chr-r-r," came the sound again. "He's in here," said Gerald. "He must be lost," said Judy. "We'll find him," said Gary and Sue. After a short and extremely quiet search almost constantly guided by the "Chr-r-r," they found a big black cricket. "He makes a lot of noise, doesn't he?" said Gerald. "I wonder how he does it?" said Gary. "Let's find out," I said. The whole room was interested.

Our cricket was placed in a jar and observed closely. "Look," said Gerald, "when he moves his wings he makes his noise." "It's a nice noise, isn't it?" said Judy. "I've heard lots of them but never have seen him make his noise." "Can a cricket hear?" said Sue. "I don't know," I said. "Let's find out." We looked in a book and found that a cricket's ears are on his knees. This both pleased and fascinated the children. "I wonder how other bugs make their noises," said Judy.

The noise of this one insect started us on a couple of months of insect study. The children collected many different kinds. Some were the grasshopper, ants, bees, wasps, flies, preying mantis, lady bug, whirligig beetle, diving beetle, mosquito, butterflies, and moths. Robert, an eighth-grade boy, made an extensive study of spiders. I checked out at least fifteen different insect books from a library. We spent many hours collecting, killing, classifying, and counting

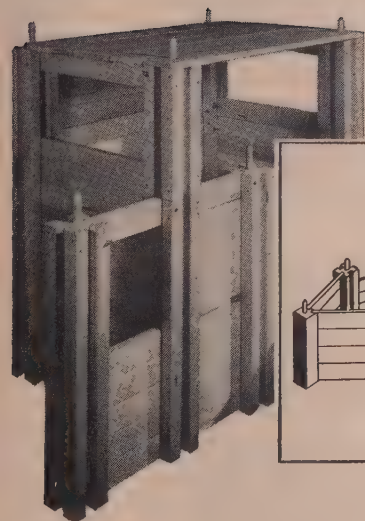
specimens. It was never unusual to see someone come dashing into the room, grab a jar used in collecting specimens and race to the spot for their prize catch. We decided to kill some of the insects for further study.

Because the youngest ones were anxious to know where the bug's noise making apparatus was, we started with the four noise makers. The seven-year-olds wrote stories about different insects. Their information came from many sources. We made field trips and observed spiders spinning their webs, ants in their colonies, bees gathering nectar, the lengths of jumps and different ways of traveling, the different places they lived, and many other things. The moths were most interesting. The curled tongues intrigued the children. We collected caterpillars and fed them. They turned into cocoons. Then this spring the moths emerged.

Many of the older children earned money and bought a science book of insects. Not only did these books help them in their classification of their specimens but also with the correct name for many different parts of their bodies. We learned to do simple dissections. Strange sounding names and words became commonplace even to the young. We learned we must study first before judgment is made as to the harmful or beneficial aspects of the insects. As Gerald said, "There are more bugs than people in the world. It's good to know some really do help us."

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NEWS and REVIEWS

News HERE and THERE . . .

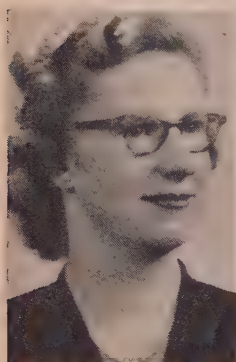
By MARY E. LEEPER

New ACE Branch

Reidsville Association for Childhood Education, North Carolina

1952-53 ACEI Fellow

Ruth Chickering, representing the North Atlantic region, is the ACEI Fellow for 1952-53. She began her work at headquarters office on August 4.



Ruth Chickering

Miss Chickering, whose home is in Pembroke, New Hampshire, is a graduate of Wheelock College, Boston, Massachusetts, and has taught in the public schools of Laconia and Hanover, New Hampshire.

The purpose of the ACEI Fellowship is:

To offer to qualified teachers opportunities for experiences that will contribute to their development as individuals and to their growth as teachers. Opportunities include: study, travel, observation, conferences with leaders in education and with others concerned with the total welfare of children.

To help Board and staff members keep in close touch with the needs of children, teachers, parents, and local and state ACE groups.

To make possible direct representation of branches and members in the work at headquarters office and in the meetings of the ACEI Executive Board.

To help keep in operation a two-way channel of communication between members and headquarters.

Possible recipients of the Fellowship are suggested by former ACEI Executive Board members living in each region. The Association's needs and plan of work for the year, as well as the personal qualifications of the

nominee, guide the members of the Board in the selection of the Fellow.

Miss Chickering will be an active participant in planning for the 1953 Study Conference and will be in Denver for the full conference week.

Ella Victoria Dobbs

On Easter morning, April 13, 1952, Ella Victoria Dobbs, of Columbia, Missouri, died at the age of eighty-six. Jennie Wahlert writes in appreciation of Miss Dobbs:

Ella Victoria Dobbs was a great teacher and a great leader. Her deep concern about the six and seven-year-old children in the rigid subject-matter first grades made her determine to do something about the education program. On February 22, 1915, she gathered together thirty representative women who were attending the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, to discuss the needs of children of the primary level.

What a memorable day! That day—quite spontaneously—the National Council of Primary Education came into existence. This organization with no red tape, but with a membership of teachers of vision, unafraid to give unselfishly of their thoughts, their time, their energies, sought ways to give children freer activities, materials, and equipment that would call forth the children's thinking, their creative responses, their evaluations.

Some fifteen years later, the National Council for Primary Education and the International Kindergarten Union joined in the Association for Childhood Education International. Miss Dobbs, as a member of the Advisory Board, continued to share her fine philosophy of child growth and development through this larger organization.

Miss Dobbs was the national founder of Pi Lambda Theta and was always active in city, state, and national educational and civic organizations. Her spirit lives on in ever-widening circles through each one who was fortunate enough to have crossed her path and caught the stimulating influence of this great teacher and leader.

ACEI Receives Gift

Frances M. Berry of Baltimore, on July 18th, at ACEI headquarters, signed the deed that made the Association for the first time the owner of real estate. The property, two acres and "Little House," the former home of Frances Berry and Isabel Lazarus, is located near Prescott, Arizona. In consideration of the expressed wishes of the donors the property is to be sold and the proceeds placed in ACEI's headquarters' building fund. Members and friends of the Association join ACEI's Executive Board in gratitude for this gift.

Clara Belle Baker Retires

Clara Belle Baker, director of the Children's School of National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, retired in August 1952. She has guided the work of this demonstration school since its founding twenty-six years ago.

Miss Baker has stressed the importance of the learning experiences for elementary school children and through the years has worked to make school a place where children participate in satisfying activities.

Besides directing the Children's School, Miss Baker has taught college students and is co-author of several books. In her writing, lectures, and teaching she has had a wide and important influence on teaching practices.

Miss Baker and her sister, Edna Dean Baker, president-emerita of National College of Education, will continue their work as educators in their new home, probably in Riverside, California.

New ACEI Bulletin

Dealing with Fear and Tension is a collection of seven excellent articles appearing in the 1951-52 issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Teachers and parents who are seeking help with the problems of tenseness and fear in children will welcome this bulletin. The material will be of particular value in study and discussion groups.

Topics and authors are:

Security in the Inner World of Childhood
—Harold G. Shane

On Being Afraid of Being Afraid—Irving J. Lee

Present Tense: Future Perfect—Maureen Applegate

Finding and Using Children's Real Selves—Miriam Reinhart

Children's Trust is Developed—Lois Barclay Murphy

Trust in Their Own Ability—Hughes Mearns

Left-Footed—Edna Long

We Must Make Choices—Ruth Cunningham

Order from the Association for Childhood Education International, 1200-15th St. N.W., Washington 5, D. C. Pp. 36. 50¢.

American Education Week

American Education Week is a vital force for good schools. The thirty-second annual observance of American Education Week,

November 9-15, will again direct nation-wide attention to the work of the schools. The central theme of the 1952 program is "Children in Today's World," with daily emphases upon "Their Churches," "Their Homes," "Their Heritage," "Their Schools," "Their Country," "Their Opportunity" and "Their Future."

American Education Week is sponsored by the National Education Association, the American Legion, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the U. S. Office of Education. Special helps are available at nominal cost for the use of planning committees and community leaders. For information write to the NEA, 1201-16th St. N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

United Nations Day

"Peace can be built only if all the nations of the world work as one world team." This theme is one which will be emphasized on UN Day, October 24. For materials that will be helpful in observing this important day, write to the National Citizens' Committee for United Nations Day, 816 Twenty-first St. N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Fulbright Award in Childhood Education

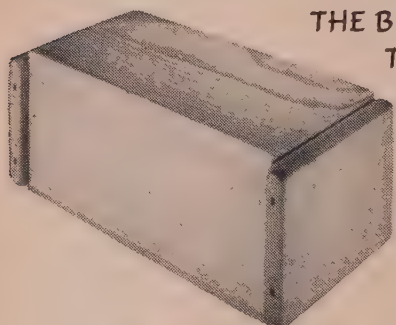
Elizabeth Faddis of San Leandro, California, will teach during the coming year at the American College in Cairo, Egypt. Miss Faddis has been granted a Fulbright award for teaching in the field of early childhood education. She is a member of the Association for Childhood Education International and has participated in ACEI study conferences.

Children's Library Movement

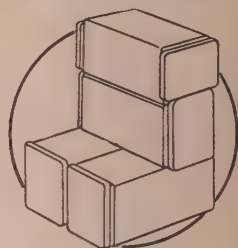
From a modest beginning in 1924 in a Sydney, Australia, suburb, there has developed a notable children's library movement. Twenty-six centers are now in operation throughout New South Wales. The centers provide, in addition to books, a wide range of activities for boys and girls of all ages, including painting, modeling, puppetry, dramatic art, music, dancing, and gardening. Most centers have at least one paid organizer, others are voluntary workers. The centers are mainly financed by donations. Their aim is to supplement the work of the schools by providing facilities for the further development of children's individual interests.

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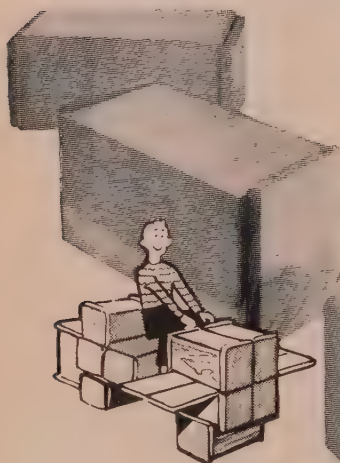
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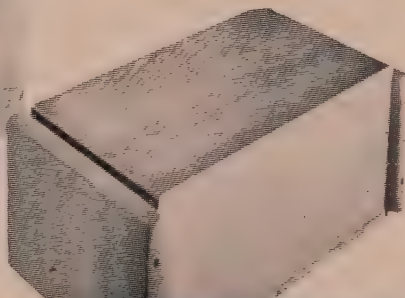
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Released Time for Teachers

By ACEI COMMITTEE

A PERTINENT PROBLEM IS THAT OF TIME FOR teachers to carry on many activities outside the classroom—those important to the welfare of children, and those important to teachers as people. Information on what is being done throughout the country has been difficult to find. In 1950, the ACEI Executive Board appointed a committee "to discover ways being used over the country to achieve some released time for teachers in elementary schools."

The committee members investigated and reported on situations in their own and neighboring communities. Local school systems handle the problem individually so no report can be made on a state-wide basis. Included with the following report are some of the sample replies which show the ramifications of purposes for use of released time, and practices being carried on.

We are hoping that readers will write and add to further thinking on this subject. Perhaps some will want to point out the problems involved in particular situations. We may not be able to use all the letters received but will choose those representative of various approaches.

Changing emphases in elementary education, including the use of community resources, parent conferences, participation in curriculum construction, selection of teaching materials, inservice workshops and similar activities, have seemed to indicate the need for a re-thinking and re-planning of the teacher's school day and year. Such consideration may lead to a reorganization of the school program including released time for the teacher for at least two major purposes:

Released time for re-assigned teaching duties that will result in better educational opportunities for children and professional growth of the teacher.

Released time for the physical, mental, and emotional relaxation of the teacher, since freedom from tensions contributes to peak efficiency.

For the past two years, the Committee on Released Time for Teachers has been studying current practices, including the need for released time and techniques for making such time available to teachers. It was recognized that no one pattern of achieving released time for teachers could be developed for all school systems, since each school must evaluate its purposes and work out the plan of action that best meets its own needs. One significant fact, however, became increasingly apparent as the Committee studied current practices. In spite of great variations in practice, from *no* provisions for released time for teachers to the *most adequate and intelligent* provision, there seemed to be a growing awareness of the nature of the problem and recognition of the need to release or at least distribute pressures on elementary teachers.

In the school systems studied, the following purposes for released time for teachers were listed as professional and justifiable:

Professional meetings—local, state, national

Curriculum work—surveys, revision, reorganization, development

Organization and planning of the school program and policies. Preschool, post school sessions, faculty meetings

Professional growth of teachers

Orientation of new teachers

School visitation and observation

Institutes

Workshops

Study groups—child study, ACEI, and others

1950-1952 committee members: Verna Walters, Kent, Ohio, chairman; Mary Barthman, Columbus, Ohio; Josephine Culhane, Flint, Mich.; Margaret C. Fuhr, Milwaukee, Wis.; Synva K. Nicol, Bellingham, Wash.; A. Adele Rudolph, Philadelphia, Pa.; Elizabeth Slater, Rockville, Md.; Rubie M. Smith, Murray, Ky.; Josephine Straufuss, Ottawa, Kans.; Frances Thomas, Oklahoma City, Okla.

Curriculum committees

Community participation

Meetings with parent groups, PTA, community councils

Service clubs

Home-school relationships

Conferences with parents for interpretation of the school program; for meeting individual needs of children; for reporting pupil progress

Home visitation

Teacher welfare

Free periods for relaxation

Rotation or release from playground, lunchroom and similar duties

Sabbatical leave

The techniques for achieving released time for teachers included such practices as:

School dismissed for part time

School dismissed for the entire time

Regular substitute teachers paid by the board of education

Use of student teachers

Use of upper grade pupils

Use of special school service clubs such as the FTA, school boy patrols, library clubs

Principal teaches classes

Parents, room mothers, serve part time

Teachers cooperate with each other (double up classes as needed)

Teachers freed when special teachers come

Adequate teaching staff (reduction of pupil-teacher ratio)

Adequate office help to relieve teachers of many routine clerical duties

In many cases the amount of released time for specific purposes was specified; one day for school visitation, two half days per month

for curriculum planning, four days per year for visitation and observation. In other cases, such as curriculum work, there was greater flexibility; and the amount of released time varied according to the work to be done.

Some pertinent factors that seemed to serve as criteria for evaluating the *need* for released time for teachers included the following:

The variety and multiplicity of elementary teacher's duties both during and outside of school hours

The length of the teacher's and child's day; class schedules

Physical environment, equipment, working materials

Pupil load (actual pupil-teacher ratio)

Human relations within a building; within a school system

Teacher morale

Parents' understanding of school programs

Community attitude toward the school program

No instance of unfavorable community reaction to released time was reported. Many schools seemed to be making an intensive effort, not only to inform parents but to identify them in an actual, functional way with the school's program and activities.

The following practices are indicative of the recognition of the need for relieving pressures on teachers and making growth in service and increasing on-the-job satisfaction possible:

Reorganization of the school year toward a twelve-month program.

Provision *during* the year for free time for professional planning, organization, inservice growth, parent conferences, teacher welfare.

Reorganization of the school day to include free time for teachers at the beginning, at the end, or during the day as needed.

Employment of additional personnel such as extra staff to reduce pupil-teacher ratio, assistant principals, adequate clerical help, regular substitute teachers.

Use of student teachers and special school service clubs to the extent that the experience has educative value for them.

Use of parents and laymen which may achieve the double purpose of releasing teachers, at the same time identifying parents and others with the school program.

Sick leave.

Sabbatical leave.

Not every school system can put into practice all of the preceding suggestions. Each must develop its own program in terms of need, community support, and economic necessity. The perennial teacher shortage in the elementary field, however, would seem to indicate that serious consideration should be given to the problem of releasing unnecessary pressures on teachers and making professional growth and personal satisfaction possible to all.

Samples of purposes for which time is released and practices for handling problems follow:

Purposes

Practices

Midwest Industrial City, 150,000

Professional meetings

Part school time (begin at 3)
(Principal teaches—children dismissed—
Teachers double up)

Curriculum survey

2 half days a semester in each building
Children dismissed

Committees on curriculum
(city-wide)

As needed: substitute teachers paid by board

School visitation (especially for new, inexperienced teachers)

As needed: substitute teachers provided

Professional meetings and conventions (for teachers and administrators—certain number each year)

Substitute teachers provided and all or part of expenses paid

Preschool conferences for professional planning

2½ days of first school week in September
Parents kept informed; no adverse reaction

West Coast City, 30,000

Committees, curriculum, and other

Substitutes provided

Released from classroom

Arranged

Lunchroom, playground

Student teachers used

Parent conferences

Arranged by building principal

East Coast City, 2,000,000

Organization work

1 day each term

Kindergarten teacher-parent conferences

1 week

Institute for professional advancement

1 day per year

Faculty meetings

2 one-hour periods per month

Grades 7 and 8 (departmentalized)

1, 2, or 3 free periods per week

Observation

Maximum of 4 days per year

Curriculum work (selected teachers)

Released as needed

Sick leave (½ pay)

Not to exceed one continuous year

<i>Purposes</i>	<i>Practices</i>
Sabbatical leave— teachers with 25 years service—also for travel, study, or health	Not to exceed one year
Selected teachers to participate in profes- sional programs	During school day
<i>Midwest City, 43,000</i> Planning	School day shortened by 1 hour (3-4) to give teachers hour for planning Also, substitutes employed to release teachers during day
<i>Midwest, Suburban Village, 7,000</i> Orientation of new teachers Professional growth, travel Professional planning	Reorganization of school year—12 month program
<i>Southern City, 112,000</i>	Mothers relieve teachers over noon hour
<i>Southwest City, 200,000</i> Home visitation Inservice training Observation Individual-group conferences—parents Professional meetings or conferences Curriculum planning Clubs Rest periods for teachers Lunch periods—free Faculty meetings Length of school day Primary 5 hours Inter. 6 hours Teachers 7-9 hours	10 hours None $\frac{1}{2}$ day by request None 2 to 3 days, state meetings None None None From 0 to 4 days None
<i>Midwest City, 37,000</i> Attendance at national conferences	Open to principals and teachers Substitutes paid Expenses paid
<i>Midwest State Capitol, 300,000</i> Workshop Clerical (reports)	1 day, school dismissed 3 days, school dismissed teacher
<i>Midwest City, 70,000</i> Curriculum work	Excused 3 weeks or 180 hours for <i>all</i> committees Extra time Regular substitutes—same substitute for each

Single copies of this article are available without charge (1-50—5¢ each; 50 on—3¢ each) by writing The Association for Childhood Education International, 1200-15th St., N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

Books for Children . . .

Editor, LELAND B. JACOBS

To hear children laugh is a quickening experience and one that gives adults pause to understand the meaning of the rippling sound. For children laugh in many different ways. They laugh sympathetically. They laugh contentedly. They laugh knowingly. They laugh in surprise, in anticipation, in wonder, in sent.

In children's literature there is much need for laughing matter. The book that impels children to express their reactions in giggles, snortles, guffaws, or chuckles is their good companion. The author who genuinely senses the health-giving ingredients of wholesome laughter is their good friend.

EDWARD, HOPPY AND JOE. By Robert Lawson. Illustrated by the author. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Ave., 1952. Pp. 122. \$2.50. Edward Rabbit, Hoppy Toad, and Joe Possum were young animal friends who were naturally mischievous young ones. In this story, however, much of their mischievousness is turned into constructive ends and educative experiences by their wise and insightful fathers.

Robert Lawson's propensities for creating available animal characters are already very well known. Again he has been able to create clever talking animals who delightfully take on various human characteristics while, at the same time, they remain true to their species. This is one of the secrets of writing superior "talking animal" stories for children. Robert Lawson not only knows how to write in this vein, but he also has the added talent of being able to draw his animal friends in the same spirit.

Undoubtedly seven- to ten-year-olds will find Edward, Hoppy, and Joe's adventures growing up much to their liking.

TOMBOY ROW. By Ruth Langland Holberg. Illustrated by Grace Paull. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1952. Pp. 220. \$2.50. Girls who know Rowena Carey will be glad to know that here are some further escapades of the tomboy of the doctor's family. In fact, in this book Rowena

earnestly tries to become "proper" with even more humorous results than her tomboy antics. It just doesn't seem right for Rowena to be proper. Baseball is more her forte than dancing, which she proves beyond the shadow of a doubt.

The fun of this book is homespun. It is a book written with genuine wholesome understanding of Rowena's dilemmas. The reader never laughs at Rowena, but rather at the problems from which she seems unable to escape. Ruth Holberg writes with assurance and understanding. She has a deft touch in interpreting, without sentimentality, girls' minds and spirits.

THE MERRY MILLER. By Rosalys Hall. Illustrated by Kurt Werth. New York: Oxford University Press, 114 Fifth Ave., 1952. Pp. 46. \$2.50. When Miller Puvret of Oye died and a new miller came to take over, the Widow Puvret could not leave the mill because she was too fat to get through the door. What was to be done? The inhabitants of the village all lend a thought to the solution, but to no practical avail. Finally the new miller works out a happy and suitable solution to the problem.

Told somewhat in the style of the traditional cumulative tale, *The Merry Miller* is a delightfully funny story. The situation around which the story evolves gives the plot a gay type of suspense. The solutions offered by well-meaning villagers are appropriately humorous. The new miller's success provides a hearty last laugh. Primary-grade children will find the text of this story much to their liking, and the pictures expertly catch the folk-quality gaiety of the well-told tale. Teachers and parents will certainly enjoy reading this book aloud.

THE TALKING CAT, and Other Stories of French Canada. By Natalie Savage Carlson. Illustrated by Roger Duvoisin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St., 1952. Pp. 87. \$2. Uncle Michel Meloche was a wonderful story teller who occasionally left the big woods to spend some evenings in the pleasant kitchens of relatives and friends. This book is a collection of Uncle Michel's choicest tales, retold by Natalie Savage Carlson. Here one meets the clever but penurious Tante Odette, the befuddled Madame Roberge, woodsmen, townfolks, and, of course, Uncle

(Continued on page 94)

Books for Children

(Continued from page 93)

Michel. Here one finds tales of bold uproariousness, of witty gentleness, of charming incongruities.

The author knows the intimate, flavorful quality of the folk tale. She has captured the enchanting directness of the folk storyteller. She respects the delightful simplicity of folk literature. All this makes her collection of stories from French Canada a splendid contribution to literature for children in the later elementary grades. Roger Duvoisin's black-and-white pictures complement the text in spirit, mood, and storytelling qualities.

THREE BOYS AND THE REMARKABLE COW. By Nan Hayden Agle and Ellen Wilson. Illustrated by Marian Honigman. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Ave., 1952. Pp. 127. \$2. Triplets who can be told apart only by their T shirts are the heroes of this lively tale, unless one

chooses to think that the remarkable cow Maggie Moo deserves top rating. It really makes no difference so far as the story is concerned, for the welfare of Abercrombie Benjamin, Christopher, and Maggie is a bound together anyway. This story is a about the triplets' experience in entering the seventeen-year-old Maggie Moo in the local fair and the unusual turn of events which ensues.

The writers have a quick sense of humor that they reveal in an appealingly developed plot and a naturally neat turn of phrase. The cumulative repetitiousness is delightful—which is no easy accomplishment. The gentle humor of the plot and the tickling humor of the language are skillfully blended. Children of seven to nine will find this story of the triplets as "good-fun" reading as they found the preceding *Three Boys and a Lighthouse*.

LUNCH FOR LENNIE. By Catherine Woolley. Illustrated by Meg Wohlberg. New York: William Morrow and Co., 425 Fourth Ave., 1952. Pp. 48. \$2. One bright day Lennie decided it was more fun to be other

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things than a boy—perhaps a dog, a giraffe, a frog, a lion, a kangaroo. But animals, Lennie's mother proved to him, could not eat Lennie's lunch. In the end hunger won out over dramatics and Lennie found that a boy's lunch is the best kind of food for a boy.

The charm of this book for the four- to seven-year-olds lies in the sophistication which the child will bring to the reading. Lennie's joy at playing animal is their joy too. His problem of abandoning his dramatic play for food in his empty stomach they will fully comprehend. The laughter that accompanies this story will be knowing laughter. Meg Wohlberg's pictures are a splendid complementation of the author's conception of Lennie.

HENRY AND BEEZUS. *By Beverly Cleary. Illustrated by Louis Darling.* New York: William Morrow and Co., 425 Fourth Ave., 1952. Pp. 192. \$2.50. The amazing Henry Huggins is back again, and again he is the same natural little boy who lives on Klickitat Street. This time Henry's experiences bring him directly in contact with girls, especially Beezus whom he finds less obnoxious than most of her sex. Again Henry, with boyish equilibrium, understands problems which arise in daily living.

The incidents in this book, as was true in *Henry Huggins*, are choice in and of themselves. Put together, they make both a well-knit story and a rib-tickling one. If Louis Darling pictures these half-grown youngsters somewhat boisterously, one has only to remember the characteristic behavior of eight- and nine-year-olds to relish the artist's true insight into the spirit of this age group. All in all, *Henry and Beezus* is a worthy companion volume to *Henry Huggins*, and Beverly Cleary has firmly and certainly established herself as a friend and interpreter of "middle childhood."

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Books for Teachers . . .

Editors, WINIFRED E. BAIN
and MARIE T. COTTER

WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK, *Trail Blazer in Education. By Samuel Tenenbaum. Introduction by John Dewey. New York: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St., 1951. Pp. 318. \$4.* Many people will enjoy reading this book as I have. It is an unusual biography as it is more of a story of the development of a philosophy of teaching than the chronicles of a person. Yet it is warm and human too, with enough detail about the man to engage the reader in speculation about how he came to think and teach as he did.

This story of Dr. Kilpatrick will clear up for many people common misconceptions about progressive education and the project method. It will stimulate the thinking of many others and will help students of education organize their concepts of teaching and learning. Many who have studied with Dr. Kilpatrick will identify themselves with the particular period in his life when they were in his class and will feel as they progress through the book that they are having a postgraduate course. The book is dynamic as is the man about whom it is written.—W.E.B.

TEACHING YOUNG CHILDREN—In Nursery School, Kindergarten, and the Primary Grades. *By Roma Gans, Celia Burns Stendler, and Millie Almy. New York: World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1952. Pp. 454. \$4.* When a book rouses the interest of its readers to the point of participation in its ideas that this book does, it proves stimulating reading. And when a book presents in a practical manner ideas that are as sound and challenging as those offered here, it proves to be an important contribution to education.

Teaching Young Children deals particularly with children from the ages of 4 to 9 and their school experiences, emphasizing the significance of these early years in developing personality. It gives the kind of insight into the nature of human beings that has been given depth through the contributions of psychologists, psychiatrists, anthropologists, and

sociologists. It is the kind of understanding of children that is particularly necessary to teachers of the elementary grades. The book emphasizes the importance of "present living for children." It takes up the planning and evaluation of the school activities of children as they become readers, speakers, writers, listeners, social scientists, mathematicians, artists, musicians—and very important—children at play.

The book takes much of its life from principles illustrated through concrete examples. You will argue with some of the actual situations described only to find that this is precisely what the authors hoped you would do. The problems presented at intervals throughout the book constantly put the reader to work. The reading lists are varied and helpful.

Because it draws its material from a wide range of known facts about children, and because it deals with home, school, and community relations, *Teaching Young Children* will have a wide appeal.—Reviewed by MYRTLE A. STUTZNER, director, Anne L. Page Memorial School, Wellesley College, Mass.

THE AMERICAN SUPERINTENDENCY. *By the American Association of School Administrators. Thirtieth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1201 - 16th St., N. W., 1952. Pp. 663. \$5.* Reading this book, one is impressed by the vastness of our public schools and the complicated nature of the work of a *superintendent of schools*. It is timely that such a forthright and informative book about school administration should be published now that the public is aroused by critics to look at schools with questioning eyes.

The book is built on a foundation of research. It was prepared by a committee using the results of a questionnaire study on the work of thousands of rural and city superintendents. Many of the superintendents contributed further descriptions of specific activities. This provides a wealth and variety of practical material from which school administrators will obtain stimulation, encouragement, and actual specific help.

Teachers, also, should read this book. Looking at the diagram of the administrative staff of a large school system causes one to feel that the superintendent must be terribly detached from teachers and children. This book brings all groups into relationship as a united

force. It says: "The superintendent must . . . give a portion of his time to the program of instruction itself. He need not minimize the importance of what he can do with from a fifth to a third of his time and energy when devoted to creative instructional leadership." And again, "All other responsibilities of the superintendent are secondary to the task of providing the facilities and conditions that make effective teaching and learning possible." In another place, "The intelligent school superintendent today realizes that school administration is no longer a one-man job but regards himself as the chief coordinator of the professional team in the complex but cooperative enterprise of public education."

Probably no one will want to read this book from cover to cover consecutively. It should be a useful reference to consult when an individual or a school is working on given problems or puzzling over certain conditions. —W.E.B.

UNDERSTANDING CHILDREN'S PLAY.

By Ruth E. Hartley, Lawrence K. Frank and Robert M. Goldenson. New York: Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, 1952. \$3.50. Pp. 372. The volume, written by three psychologists who participated in the program at Caroline Zachary Institute of Human Development (no longer active), is based on observations of some 180 children aged two to five, inclusive, representing cross-sectional socio-economic and cultural backgrounds.

The diary records of the children in many play situations and with a variety of materials, along with thumbnail sketches of the children's backgrounds and problems, give convincing evidence for interpretations which are made. There are chapters on dramatic play, blocks, water play, music, and art materials.

The book should help persons who work with or are preparing to work with children to become more perceptive and analytical in their observations as well as more aware of the significance of play when accompanied by other relevant information. There is ample documentary evidence to support the points made.

Practical and valid suggestions are offered for the application of the findings in terms of effective and supportive guidance of chil-

(Continued on page 98)

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Books for Teachers

(Continued from page 97)

dren as they work through their individual problems in play. The appendix includes helpful suggestions for observations and recordings.—Reviewed by LYNN GEHRI, *Wheelock College, Boston.*

CHILDREN WHO HATE. By Fritz Redl and David Wineman. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1951. Pp. 253. \$3.50. We have been waiting for this book. We can now savor and digest the kernels of insight and wisdom we have heard Fritz Redl express. Mr. Redl and his well-chosen associates did not merely describe their cases and take their pictures; they lived with them. The book is devoted to a blameless accounting of an exploration among children who have learned to hate the grownups in their lives and thus their whole world.

The dedication, "To the children nobody wants, and to those members of the Junior League of Detroit who wanted them," previews the story. The authors offer us scant hope of reaching and straightening out chil-

dren who have become gnarled and twisted by neglect, rejection, and hostility from families, neighbors, teachers, policemen. They offer to make suggestions for a design for a more hopeful strategy than we now know in a forthcoming publication, *Strategy Against Childhood Confusion: Approaching Treatment Through Everyday Life*. While we wait, let every teacher, minister, social worker, municipal budget director read *Children Who Hate*, meditate upon its meaning, act vigorously upon the impulses resulting therefrom.—Reviewed by HOWARD A. LANE, *professor of education, New York University.*

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. By Roy DeVerl Willey. New York: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St., 1952.

Pp. 807. \$5. The author has presented a remarkable survey of the guidance functions of the classroom teacher. His concept of guidance includes all desirable teaching methods and practices.

The importance of external environmental influences is stressed. Valuable guides and suggestions are offered which should aid the

(Continued on page 103)

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Films Seen and Liked...

ACEI Film Review Centers

BETTER STUDY HABITS SERIES. *Produced by Young America Flms, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., New York, N. Y., 1951. Educational collaborator: Margaret Parke, assoc. professor, School of Education, Brooklyn College. Color, \$30. These filmstrips consist of 43 to 58 frames. 35 mm. A guide. For middle grades and junior high school.* These filmstrips make their appeal through color, art work, humor, and simple statements. The vocabulary, analogies, and concepts used make this film better adapted to the junior and senior high schools than the elementary grades.

The pattern of development is (1) the reasons why the skills and habits are important; (2) an identification of the skills involved; (3) a consideration of each skill showing its correct expression, the rule to be followed in

Note: These films are reviewed by the Great Plains Film Review Center.

its usage and examples; (4) a check list of the steps involved in learning the skill; (5) a summary of all points mentioned in the filmstrip.

The filmstrip is of value in suggesting some new content, in making some situations more vivid, in reinforcing classroom teaching, in offering a new approach. The techniques used have been advocated by leading educators. In cases where there is some difference between examples shown and standards set in a school system, the teacher would note, explain, and adapt.

PHONICS, A KEY TO BETTER READING (Set of 6 filmstrips). *Produced by Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago: 1951. Educational collaborator: Prepared by Devona M. Price, director of instruction, and Hilda B. Pogue, Oak Park Public Schools. Color, \$5 each filmstrip; \$28.50. Each filmstrip has 29 to 44 frames. 35 mm. For intermediates.* These filmstrips provide interesting material for

(Continued on page 100)

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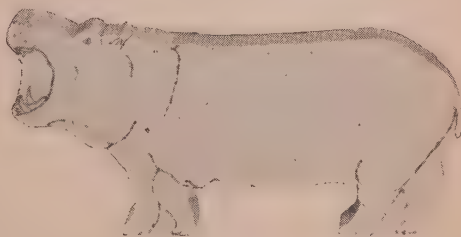
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Films Seen and Liked

(Continued from page 99)

older children who are having difficulty in learning to read. For this reason it would be useful in upper elementary grades and in junior and senior high school as well.

Films contain wide variety of ways to study words. Suggestions to the teacher are incorporated in the filmstrip which the committee felt was an interesting device. Frames in red were difficult to read.

FRACTION SERIES (Set of 8 filmstrips).

Produced by Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago: 1951. Educational collaborator: Prepared in collaboration with Joseph J. Urbancsek, chairman, department of mathematics, Chicago Teachers College. Black and white. \$3.25 per filmstrip; \$24 set. Each filmstrip has 33 to 63 frames. 35 mm. "The Meaning of Fractions," (#1, 43 frames), gives a good orientation to this field of numbers. It

states concepts simply and graphically. Seven other filmstrips developing various mathematical concepts involved in the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of fractions and mixed numbers.

In some filmstrips a variety of illustrative material has been used, in others the illustrations were largely limited. Each filmstrip concludes with problems involving fractions which occur in daily life situations.

Too many concepts are presented in each filmstrip with insufficient examples to illustrate them clearly in a manner adequate for pupil understanding. Since it may take a classroom teacher two or more semesters to develop the concepts that are developed in this series, the film is suggested for review purposes only. If a classroom teacher has easy access to it he might use parts of it as he sees fit.

THE ADVENTURES OF WILLIE SKUNK.

Produced by Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., New York, N. Y., 1951. Black

It doesn't button anything

Teachers everywhere are enjoying the story of the sturdy youngster who balked at that part of a psychological test which required her to take a strip of cloth with buttonholes in it, and a strip of cloth with buttons sewed on it, and button the two together.

To her mother's embarrassed protestations that a little girl who skillfully buttoned her coat everyday should have no trouble with this simple exercise, the child replied, "But Mother, it doesn't *button* anything!"

We suspect that behind the revolt of many children against the niceties of spelling lies the same clear-eyed understanding—"Lists of words don't *spell* anything."

Children write, read, speak, and listen to words *in context*. The study of spelling ought therefore to be a part of language study as a whole. Only then will the complex of skills support spelling ability—and, in turn, only then will spelling skills help to develop ability in the understanding and use of language.

WORD POWER THROUGH SPELLING makes spelling a full partner in the language arts program. It teaches the *forms* of words, the *sounds* of words, the *variations in meaning* and spelling of words—all in context which is both meaningful and interesting to children.

WORD POWER THROUGH SPELLING is by Lillian E. Billington, for grades 2-8, in workbook and cloth editions. Teachers' Guides contain a basic speech program.

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and white, \$45. 11 min. Sound. For kindergarten through the sixth grade. This film is useful in showing how to observe wild animals in action. Illustrates how the skunk uses his odor as a protective device. It also shows the curiosity animals have for each other. The humor in the narration makes the film enjoyable.

RHYTHM IN MUSIC. *Produced by Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago: 1951. Educational collaborator: Traugott Rohner, assoc. professor of music education, Northwestern University School of Music. Black and white, \$62.50; color, \$125. 13½ min. 16 mm. Sound. Teachers' guide. For primary and intermediate.* During a grade school orchestra rehearsal, the group works through a progression in rhythmic forms. Beginning with steady, even beats, rhythm is varied through the use of accent, the changing of the speed of beats, and the use of melody. Fun, participation, and easy learning characterize the presentation.

Children are directed to an appreciation of rhythm in music by *listening* to rhythms in

life patterns, the heart rhythm, the rhythm in skipping and jumping, the rhythm of the railroad engine. Further appreciation develops by identifying the pattern of the rhythms by clapping, and finally by playing from memory on their instruments certain musical patterns which illustrate the rhythms.

This emphasis on hearing rhythm is basic to the ability of reading music in a certain rhythm pattern. The film should prove useful in reinforcing classroom teaching, in suggesting new methods, or in summarizing what has been developed in the classroom.

THE EASTER SEASON. *Produced by Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago: 1952. Black and white, \$50; color, \$100. 11 min. 16 mm. Sound. Teachers' guide.*

For primary and intermediate. This film explains the origin of eggs, rabbits, the position of the sun and moon in relation to the Easter season. It might be used in grades one through six. Nice bits of information are given but it develops no important learnings or attitudes. The committee felt that

(Continued on page 102)

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Films Seen and Liked

(Continued from page 101)

since Easter is a religious festival, either the content should include the religious significance of the festival or the title should be changed to "The Spring Season" which seems more descriptive of the subject matter of the film.

CHILDREN'S STORIES (Set of 6 filmstrips).

Produced by Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago: 1951. Color, \$5 each filmstrip; \$28.50 set. Each filmstrip has 38 to 48 frames. 35 mm.

For primary. The series portrays some of the best known children's stories—"Little Red Riding Hood," "The Three Little Pigs," "The Gingerbread Boy," "Goldilocks and the Three Bears," "Little Black Sambo," and "Rumpelstiltskin." As a whole, the committee was not enthusiastic about the filmstrips, feeling they had little to contribute over and above the textbook story. They might be used as a means of varying the reading approach or as

a culminating activity after the story had been studied in class. Any possible horror scenes have been deleted.

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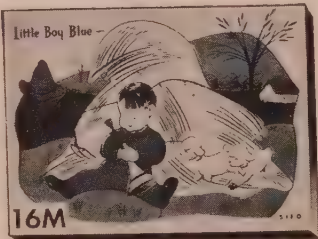
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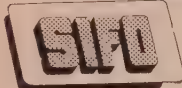


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Books for Teachers

(Continued from page 98)

teacher in planning a favorable environment for all children including those who deviate with respect to mental, physical, social, or cultural characteristics. Although there is merit in this emphasis, it is disappointing to find a disregard for the contributions from dynamic psychology. Childhood emotions are described on the basis of outmoded principles of mechanistic psychology or from the developmental point of view but with no attention given to motivation and the dynamics of behavior.

The extensive and definitive compilation of facts and opinions relating to educational practices should make this book valuable as a text for students of elementary education.—Reviewed by KATHERN MCKINNON, *Hunter College of the City of New York*.

OUR CHILDREN TODAY. Edited by Sidonie M. Gruenberg and the Staff of the Child Study Association of America. New York: Viking Press, 18 E. 48th St., 1952. Pp. 366. \$3.95. Twenty years ago the Child Study

Association of America published a book entitled, *Our Children*, which synthesized expert opinion of that date. Now in 1952, in response to great demand, they publish their second book, bringing the reader up-to-date on current findings in child development.

The content is divided into six sections. It begins with a look at children in the mid-century, with the changing patterns of family living and the impact of war years, and then follows the child from his earliest years through adolescence.

The material in the book is presented in the form of articles—many of which are reprinted from *Child Study Magazine*. The authors include Arnold Gesell, Anna Freud, James L. Hymes, Lawrence Kubie, Milton Senn, Lawrence Frank, and Fritz Redl. Throughout all parts of the book the reader feels the deep understanding which the authors bring to their work, their sensitivity to the needs of children and parents, and their confidence that children can grow up happily and securely—even in times of stress—when there is love and understanding.—Reviewed by RUTH CLAPP, *Wheelock College, Boston*.

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Over the Editor's Desk

Read and Enjoyed

"Progressive Education Versus 'Spectatoritis'" Fred Hechinger, *The Reporter*, August 5, 1952.

Using the book *William Heard Kilpatrick* as a starting point Mr. Hechinger takes a look at:

"The battle between the 'progressives' and the 'traditionalists'—both meaningless terms except in their extremes, where both are absurd—is generating a great deal of heat and practically no light, but it consumes enough time and energy to hurt both progress and tradition in our schools."

He then proceeds to look at all sides of the picture with an air of detachment that is refreshing and revealing.

A review of this book is on page 96.

Getting Acquainted With Our Friends

We were invited to attend the "Education Breakfast" which was part of the annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

The program was to discuss "your chamber's homework." A clever skit made suggestions of ways of working.

These suggestions were made for local committee action:

Enrollments going up? How much?

Buildings needed? Planned?

Enough elementary teachers?

Schools well equipped?

School finance plans sound?

These people are very interested in ways of working with the schools in their communities. Let's be sure and do our part in taking them along with us as we work for better things for children.

Questions and Answers

Questions! Questions! Questions! People working with children have many of them.

ACEI has long felt a responsibility for giving help to those who turned to Headquarters.

At first the questions were answered through CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. But the organization grew and so did the number of questions. So Information Service was begun.

Mamie Heinz, a former kindergarten teacher, assumes the responsibility for directing the requests into the proper channels.

A loan file is kept up-to-date from which International members may borrow materials. It covers topics such as these—child

behavior, manuscript writing, sex education, creative dramatics. A library of professional books is maintained for information and for browsing by Association visitors.

Sometimes requests on special subjects are sent to other organizations to answer. Sometimes requests come to ACEI Information Service from other agencies such as the Office of Education, NEA, and others.

Opportunities to share materials, to point to resources, to listen to current trends and needs come through visits, telephone calls, letters and cards.

One day I sampled letters and cards which were being worked on at one time. They came from twenty states and Peru. A sample of the requests:

From Arkansas—Please send me the name of a large book for use in nursery school, priced under \$5. I already have *Told Under the Blue Umbrella*.

From Virginia—Please send material on the development of pupil leadership and responsibility.

From Pennsylvania—Please send materials on organizing a nursery school.

From Kentucky—Please send information on state supported kindergartens.

Why does ACEI maintain Information Service? Because it keeps Headquarters' staff alert to the needs in the field, makes the staff feel closer to those working with children, and gives direction to much professional reading. Plans for publication often come out of repeated requests.

An Explanation An innovation this year will be the inclusion of a section not directly tied to the theme.

This issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION has a section on science.

Reading in November.

Art in December.

Oral expression in January.

Written expression in February.

Arithmetic in March.

Health and physical education in April.

Music in May.

These have been included in response to many requests for help on specific areas of the child's life at school and home. As you watch this develop through the year, won't you let us know how you like it?

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In this large book (8½ x 11) are reproduced 114 selected photographs illustrating the principles and practices discussed in *Helping Children Grow*.

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